

COMPLEXITY IN TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF ISIXHOSA AS A SECOND LANGUAGE IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

by

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DECLARATION

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to investigate complexity in isiXhosa task-based second language (L2) learning and teaching in the Eastern Cape and South African primary school intermediate phase context in order to identify the specific learning needs of young beginner second language learners in the school instructional context.

The study explores the use of communicative tasks for young beginner second language teaching. It aims at providing a sound theoretical foundation of language learning principles supporting task-based teaching for young learners. Cognitive and social perspectives on language learning within second language acquisition and related disciplinary fields presenting distinct approaches and foci in investigating second language learning and teaching are regarded, integrated and consolidated, informing a more comprehensive view of the dynamic processes and varying factors involved. Second language learning is assumed to be a non-linear, cumulative, ever-developing process relying on learner engagement with quantity and quality input, authentic meaning-orientated output and feedback on language production facilitating language development.

Supporting task-based language teaching where tasks form the units of analysis for lesson design and syllabus design, the study identifies core complexity features in task design, task-based interaction, task-based assessment and task sequencing, allowing teachers and syllabus designers to adjust pedagogic task complexity on a cline matching young beginner L2 learners' learning needs. Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis provides a rationale for categorizing, grading and sequencing pedagogic tasks for second language acquisition. Young beginner L2 learners' age and existing language knowledge are considered critical factors in determining learning needs contributing to task difficulty. Additionally, the study examines linguistic complexity and linguistic difficulty, analysing example target tasks for young beginner isiXhosa L2 learners in primary school intermediate phase, motivating task-based focus on form methodology representing various degrees of explicitness facilitating noticing and learner L2 development.

In order to identify the specific learning needs of young beginner isiXhosa L2 learners in primary school intermediate phase context, an affordances theory in an interdisciplinary investigation, analysing theoretical perspectives on the instructional task, individual learner factors, the context of learning and components of language development, is presented. It is argued that task-based L2

teaching contextualizes the task process in terms of local learning needs affording learner awareness and engagement with the target language needed for language development. It is further argued that a primary concern in task-based second language teaching is task design, allowing for learner participation through motivating task contents and graded task complexity relating to learner readiness in terms of individual learner factors, affording the development of implicit and explicit language knowledge.

OPSOMMING

Die doel van hierdie studie is om kompleksiteit in isiXhosa taakgebaseerde tweedetaalleer en -onderrig, in die Oos-Kaap en Suid-Afrikaanse laerskool intermediêre fase, te ondersoek ten einde die spesifieke behoeftes van jong beginnerleerders vir tweedetaalverwerwing in die skoolonderrigkonteks te identifiseer.

Die studie ondersoek die gebruik van kommunikasie-take in tweedetaalonderrig van jong beginnerleerders. Dit stel ten doel die daarstelling van 'n deeglike teoretiese begronding van beginsels van tweedetaalverwerwing wat 'n taakgebaseerde benadering in tweedetaalonderrig van jong leerders steun. 'n Meer omvattende beskouing van die komplekse prosesse en groot aantal faktore betrokke in tweedetaalverwerwing word bewerkstellig deur die inagneming, integrasie en oordeelkundige skifting van kognitiewe and sosiale perspektiewe in tweedetaalverwerwing en verwante wetenskapsdissiplines wat uiteenlopende benaderings en fokusse in tweedetaalleer en -onderrig navorsing verteenwoordig. Tweedetaalverwerwing word beskou as 'n ongelykmatige, kumulatiewe en voortdurend-ontwikkende proses, wat afhanklik is van leerders se aandagskenking tydens blootstelling aan kwantiteit and kwaliteit taalgebruik, betekenis-geörienteerde kommunikasie en taalproduksierterugvoer wat gemik is op taalontwikkeling.

In ondersteuning van taakgebaseerde tweedetaalonderrig, waar take die basiese boublokke vir lesontwerp en sillabusontwerp is, identifiseer hierdie studie die kern bestandele van kompleksiteit in taakontwerp, taakgebaseerde interaksie, taakgebaseerde assessering en taakopeenvolging, om sodoende onderwysers en sillabusontwerpers in staat te stel om pedagogiese take aan te pas op 'n kompleksiteitskaal met betrekking tot jong beginnerleerders se tweedetaalleerbehoefte. Robinson se Kognisie Hipotese omvat die grondbeginsel van taakkompleksiteit vir die kategorisering, gradering en opeenvolging van pedagogiese take vir tweedetaalverwerwing in hierdie studie. Die jong beginnertaalleerder se ouderdom en bestaande taalkennis word as kritiese faktore van taakmoeilikeid beskou en word gemotiveer vir die bepaling van tweedetaalleerbehoefte. Boonop ondersoek die studie taakkompleksiteit en taalmoeilikeid as twee verdere kategorieë vir die bepaling van tweedetaalleerbehoefte en motiveer hiervolgens verskillende grade van eksplisiewe fokus-op-vorm metodologie. Teikentake vir jong beginnerleerders van isiXhosa tweedetaalleer in die laerskool intermediêre fase word taakkundig geanaliseer om taalstrukture te identifiseer en leertake wat bewuswording en tweedetaalontwikkeling bevorder word gemotiveer en beskryf.

Ten einde die spesifieke leerbehoeftes van jong beginnerleerders van isiXhosa tweedetaalleer in die laerskool intermediêre fase te identifiseer word die Beskikbaarhede ('Affordances') teorie toegepas binne 'n interdisiplinêre ondersoek wat die teoretiese perspektiewe oor onderrigtake, individuele leerderfaktore, die leerkonteks en die komponente van taalontwikkeling analiseer. Daar word geredeneer dat taakgebaseerde tweedetaalonderrig betrek plaaslike leerbehoeftes in die leerproses en sodoende bemoontlik leerderbewuswording en betekenisvolle omgang met die teikentaal wat noodsaaklik is vir taalontwikkeling. Daar word verder geredeneer dat taakontwerp is die hoofbelang in taakgebaseerde tweedetaalonderrig wat die ontwikkeling van implisiewe en eksplisiewe taalkennis ten doel stel. Ten laaste word 'n taakontwerp voorgestel wat die leerbehoeftes van jong beginnerleerders van isiXhosa tweedetaalleer in die laerskool intermediêre fase aanspreek in terme van motiverende taakinhoude en aanpasbare taakkompleksiteit met betrekking tot leerdergereedheid, wat bepaal word deur individuele leerderfaktore, en sodoende leerderdeelname en -betokkenheid aanmoedig.

ISISHWANKATELO

Injongo yesi sifundo kukuphonononga ubuntsonkotha kumsebenzi osekelwe kwisiXhosa njengolwimi lwesibini lokufunda nokufundisa eMpuma Koloni naseMzantsi Afrika kwisikolo samabanga aphantsi kumxholo wenqanane langaphakathi ukuze kuchongwe iimfuno ezithile zabafundi abasaqalayo bolwimi lwesibini kumxholo womgaqo wokufundisa esikolweni.

Isifundo siphonononga ukusetyenziswa kwemisebenzi yonxibelelwano yabasaqalayo kulwimi lwesibini lokufundisa. Sijolise ekuvezeni iziseko ezingundoqo zethiyori yemithetho-siseko yokufunda ulwimi exhasa ukufundiswa komsebenzi osekelwe abafundi abaselula. Iimbono ngenzululwazi yengqondo neyasekuhlaleni ekufundweni kolwimi njengolwimi lwesibini neminye imiba echaphazelekayo ekuvezeni iindlela ezahlukeneyo zokuphononongwa ukufundwa kolwimi lwesibini nokufundisa, ziyqwalaselwa zisetyenziswe, zicacisa indlela ephangaleleyo ebandakanya iinkqubo ezahlukeneyo nezitshintshayo. Ukufundwa kolwimi lwesibini kuthatyathwa njengento engenakulinganiswa, eyongezekelayo, esoloko iqhubeka exhomekeke ekuzibandakanyekeni komfundi ngomthamo nokubaluleka kwegalelo, okujoliswe kwintsingiselo yeziphumo nengxelo ekuvezweni nakwinkqubela yolwimi.

Ukuxhaswa ukufundiswa kolwimi olusekelwe kumsebenzi apho imisebenzi ingamasuntswana ohlalutyo lwesifundo nokwenziwa kwesilabhasi, isifundo sichonga izinto zobuntsonkotha obungundoqo ekwenzeni umsebenzi, unxibelelwano olusekelwe kumsebenzi, indlela yokuhlela esekelwe kumsebenzi nasekudweliseni umsebenzi, ivumela ootisthala kunye nabenzi besilabhasi ukuba balungise ubuntsonkotha bemisebenzi yokufundisa kwindawo edibanisa iimfuno zomfundi wolwimi lwesibini oselula. I-hypothesis yengqondo kaRobinson inika umthetho-siseko wokwahlula nokuhlela ngokobuntsonkotha nokulandelelana kwemisebenzi yokufundiswa kolwimi lwesibini. Ubudala babafundi abancinane bolwimi lwesibini kunye nolwazi olukhoyo lolwimi kuthatyathwa njengezona zinto zingundoqo ekufumaniseni iimfuno zokufunda ezinegalelo kubunzima bomsebenzi. Ukongeza isifundo siphonononga ubuntsonkotha benzululwazi yolwimi kunye nobunzima bayo, ukuhlalutya imisebenzi yabafundi bolwimi lwesibini abaselula kwisikolo samabanga aphantsi kwinqanane elingaphakathi, ukukhuthaza okujoliswe kwisiseko somsebenzi ukubonisa umgaqo wamaqondo ahlukeneyo ngokucacileyo nakwinkqubela yomfundi wolwimi lwesibini.

Ukuze kuchongwe iimfuno ezithile zokufunda zabafundi abaselula abafunda isiXhosa njengolwimi lwesibini kwisikolo samabanga aphantsi kumxholo wenqanane elingaphakathi, ingcingane yokuba nakho kuphononongo lwangaphakathi, kuhlalutya iimbono zethiyori kumsebenzi wokufundisa, imiba yomfundi ngamnye, kuboniswa ngemixholo yokufunda kunye nezinto zenkqubela yolwimi. Kuxoxwa okokuba ukusekwa komsebenzi wokufundisa ulwimi lwesibini kubekwa emxholweni inkqubo yomsebenzi ngokuphathelele kwindlela yeemfuno zasekuhlaleni, nto leyo ethi inike umfundi ithuba lokuba aze azibandakanye nolwimi olufunekayo ekujoliswe kulo kulungiselelwa inkqubela yolwimi. Iyaxoxwa kananjalo into yokuba oyena ndoqo ekusekweni komsebenzi wokufundisa ulwimi njengolwimi lwesibini kukwenziwa komsebenzi, kuvunyelwe

ukuba umfundi athabathe inxaxheba ngokuthi akhuthazwe kwimixholo yomsebenzi nakumsebenzi ohlelwe ngokobuntsokotha nokulunga komfundi ngokuphathelele kwiimfuno zomfundi ngamnye, nto ke leyo ebangela inkqubela engacacanga necacileyo yolwazi lolwimi.

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ABBREVIATIONS:

CAPS Curriculum and Assessment Statement Policy

CLT Communicative language teaching

LoLT language of learning and teaching

L1 first language

L2 second language

L3 third language

MLAT Modern Language Aptitude Test

SSARC simple and stable, automatization, restructuring, complexity

SCT Sociocultural Theory

SLA Second Language Acquisition

TtTaPa target task, teacher assistance, push automaticity

TL target language

TLA Third Language Acquisition

TBLT task-based language teaching

ZPD zone of proximal development

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 THE PURPOSE AND RATIONALE OF STUDY

This study contributes to the continuous efforts in second language acquisition (SLA) aspiring to narrow the gap between theory and practice in second language (L2) learning, focussing on the relationship between second language development and second language teaching (Ellis, 2012, Ellis and Shintani, 2014, Ortega, 2009, The Douglas Fir Group, 2016, Van den Branden, 2006).

A growing sense of the importance of multilingualism for democracy and economic empowerment, internationally and locally, motivates the current study aspiring to inform educational practices focussing on language development in young beginner learners in the instructional setting (Komorowsky, 2010, Leerders moet nuwe taal leer, 2012). Few studies investigate the particular needs of primary school intermediate phase (ages 9-12 years) L2 learners regarding second language acquisition through curriculum development and an additional language syllabus, especially in an African language, informing teaching practices promoting multilingualism. The present study applies SLA theory and research findings from associated disciplines, including child language acquisition, cognitive psychology, education, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, bilingualism, third language acquisition and language teaching, to the context of isiXhosa additional language learning in South African primary school intermediate phase, aspiring to impact language education by informing language theory and L2 learning and teaching practices.

A specific research focus investigating complexity in isiXhosa second language acquisition, analysing cognitive and linguistic complexity in communicative tasks for L2 development, expands the scientific knowledge base for academic and professional communities. On the other hand, a holistic view of the complex and dynamic second language processes, which depends on infinite interrelated contextual and individual learner factors, integrating various diverse theoretical perspectives presents a more comprehensive account informing pedagogic practices. Within such an approach, considering a wider field of inquiry investigating the complexity phenomenon in second language development applied to the specific context of isiXhosa L2 teaching in primary school intermediate phase, two theories particularly inform the study: an affordances theory in language learning and teaching (Aronin and Singleton, 2010a,

2010b, 2012, Anderson, 2015) and the Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2001, 2005c, 2010, 2011a).

1.2 MOTIVATION AND AIMS OF STUDY

The South African government supports the promotion of multilingualism and the development of African languages by affording them official status and providing obligatory teaching of additional languages at schools (The Incremental Introduction of African Languages in South African Schools, 2013, The South African Constitution, 1996). However, since the affordance of official status for African Languages, such as isiXhosa, over twenty years ago, educational affordances have not been effectuated in South African schools. Wildsmith (2013) recognises challenges in the development and promotion of African languages, including the need for change in language attitudes, a lack of materials development, inadequate teacher training in African language teaching, and colloquial varieties and the problem of the standardization of African languages.

For the successful implementation of isiXhosa Additional Language in South African primary schools' intermediate phase, the learning contents for curriculum and material design need to be theoretically grounded and contextualised. This research study aims to inform effective L2 teaching practices by analysing the issue of complexity in L2 acquisition and applying Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis to the specific context of young beginner learners of isiXhosa second language. This will make it possible to develop a framework for a task-based syllabus that is adjustable in accordance with individual learners' abilities and learning needs, promoting second language development in learners of different proficiency levels sharing a classroom. Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis is further explored within this instructional context informing a task-based, dynamic assessment framework for young beginner L2 learners. Analysing task-based methodology, the study describes specific methodological activities for young beginner isiXhosa additional language learners in primary school intermediate phase, promoting learner motivation and attention to form affording greater complexity and accuracy in learner performances.

1.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The study of complexity in task-based L2 teaching represents a cognitive processing perspective on L2 learning investigating cognitive and linguistic complexity in the input, task features and learner performances, identifying optimal task sequencing and focus on form for L2 development. The affordances theory in second language acquisition and multilingualism

supports the investigation of external and internal learner factors that allow L2 learning and language development.

Affordances theory recognizes the interdependence of multiple factors, throughout social and cognitive dimensions, in language learning, and motivates a transdisciplinary investigation throughout the study (Aronin and Singleton, 2012, Gibson, 1977, The Douglas Fir group, 2016). The affordances theory proposes a relationship of dynamic mutuality between the context of learning and the individual's language processing capacity, advancing perception as the interface between social and cognitive learning processes. Appropriate and systematically increasing cognitive task complexity and focus on form are advanced as affordances for language development in the instructed second language setting (Nasaji, 2015, Robinson, 2010).

Task-based language learning research has been contributing for more than three decades to transdisciplinary scientific knowledge, investigating language learning processes and complex phenomena, including psycholinguistic constructs like motivation and willingness to participate (Eddy-U, 2015), sociolinguistic phenomena such as negotiation of meaning, peer interaction and corrective feedback (Bitchener, 2010), and cognitive-linguistic processes like noticing, priming and uptake, incidental learning, as well as complexity, accuracy and fluency in L2 development (McDonough and Mackey, 2008, Samuda and Bygate, 2008).

Advancing task-based language teaching for engaging essential cognitive processes required for L2 learning and development, the study analyses task design and implementation features as these relate to task complexity. Van den Branden (2006) maintains that task-based language teaching uses communicative tasks as the basic unit of analysis for syllabus design, methodology and assessment. Ellis (2012) supports Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis as providing a theoretical basis for making predictions about how design and implementation variables affect L2 task performances. Robinson (2011a) provides a taxonomic triadic componential framework for task classification and sequencing: task complexity, task condition and task difficulty. However, it is a fundamental pedagogical claim of the Cognition Hypothesis that pedagogic tasks should only be sequenced based on L2 learners' task induced cognitive complexity (Robinson, 2010). The study further investigates the application of the SSARC model of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis for task-based isiXhosa L2 teaching of young beginner learners affording interdependence between tasks and task components through

task sequences that support the construction of enabling skills and cumulative learning (Nunan, 2014).

1.4 METHODOLOGY

The study investigates task complexity and task design for communicative and grammar-based tasks, as well as task implementation and task sequencing informing additional language curriculum design for primary school intermediate phase. A transdisciplinary inquiry informs the literature study, identifying core issues relating to target language development through task-based teaching of young beginner second language learners. A complexity analysis of target tasks, invoking Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis, identifies general and specific measures of complexity for facilitating interlanguage development through task sequencing and L2 instruction.

The study is firstly contextualized in terms of the specific needs of isiXhosa second language learners in primary school intermediate phase, in the Eastern Cape, South Africa. The affordances theory guides a systematic investigation of multilingualism, language policy and curriculum design in relevant and current studies and in the literature, identifying different categories of language affordances, describing access to affordances and optimal conditions for the effectuation of language affordances, as well as making recommendations for the creation of language affordances in this context.

Secondly, the study examines SLA research findings that represent different perspectives on language learning, identifying key acquisitional processes and mechanisms, as well as external and internal learner factors, proposing second language learning task characteristics and content for promoting L2 development. The research will examine an initial taxonomy of task characteristics and categories, and, additionally, it will analyze different components and routes of L2 development in accordance with SLA findings. These findings will be applied to pedagogic practice by exploring specific methodological activities in the literature pertaining to young beginner second language learners.

Thirdly, a needs analysis is conducted to inform task types and task thematic contents. An examination of current available L2 teaching materials, individual interviews with L2 teachers and learners, as well as small group and class discussions with primary school intermediate phase learners advise sample dialogues constructed for the complexity analysis. The dialogues are written in Xhosa, representing the language use of mothertongue speakers in the nine to twelve years' age group, and freely translated into English. The English translation does not

have any relevance for the complexity analysis or any other aspect of the study, and it should not be used as a technical transcript. (See appendices 1-13.) More than eight years of teaching experience with this age group, and mainly teaching Xhosa mothertongue speakers in the Eastern Cape, as well as being a mother of two primary school intermediate phase children, contribute to my understanding of the level and content of communicative activities occupying the children's daily existence. However, the collection of example target tasks and pedagogic task types are not exhausted, but rather serves to analyse and illustrate the core issues identified in the transdisciplinary literature research regarding complexity in L2 learning and teaching.

Based on the learning needs analysis of young beginner learners, the sample dialogues are constructed and analysed for cognitive and linguistic complexity. General measures of linguistic complexity are identified in the literature, including syntactic and lexical measures (Bulté, Housen, Pierrard and Van Daele, 2008, Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth, 2000, Ishikawa, 2015, Norris and Ortega, 2009). Specific measures of complexity evoked by task demands are identified in a concept-orientated analysis, presenting tasks-natural linguistic devices (Robinson, Cardina and Shirai, 2009). The study will further analyse task complexity within the dimensions of cognitive and interactive complexity invoking Robinson's (2010) taxonomic Triadic Componential Framework. The research supports the Cognition Hypothesis's model of multiple attentional resource pools that expands in accordance to the cognitive task demands. The resource-directing and resource-dispersing variables in target tasks will be identified in terms of the parameters expressed in Robinson's Triadic Componential Framework: +/- here and now, +/- few elements, +/- spatial, causal or intentional reasoning, +/- perspective-taking, +/- planning time, +/- single task, +/- task structure, +/- few and/or independency of steps and +/- prior knowledge (Robinson, 2010, 2011a, Robinson and Gilabert, 2007). Interactional and interactant variables are described indicating pedagogic task types, including one-way or two-way information-gap tasks with single convergent task outcomes and opinion-gap tasks with divergent task outcomes (Ellis and Shintani, 2014). The study will compare the cognitive and linguistic complexity of different task types as a function of task demands evoked by task outcome, task context, interactive behaviour, task mode and individual learner factors. Additionally, the study will investigate the relationship between the cognitive and linguistic complexity of target tasks exploring the cognitive-linguistic interface invoking the Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2010). Once the basic components of the target tasks are identified, the task design features will be manipulated in terms of Robinson's (2010) SSARC model for sequencing pedagogic task versions with increased complexity requiring

mental effort, while shifting learners' attentional resources affording greater complexity, accuracy and fluency in L2 development. See section 3.2.4 for a more detailed description of the Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis, Triadic Componential Framework and SSARC model.

Finally, invoking a pedagogic impetus, the study will investigate the role of focus on form and teacher intervention facilitating awareness of language function and form, in young beginner L2 learners in primary school intermediate phase. Exploring Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis, the study will analyze different degrees of consciousness in learning, motivating implicit and explicit methodological activities for young beginner L2 learners of isiXhosa (Ellis and Shintani, 2014). Specifically, the study will examine SLA literature describing formulaic language learning and focus on form in task-based language learning and teaching, applying these findings to the target tasks for isiXhosa L2 learning and teaching in primary school intermediate phase.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND ORGANIZATION OF STUDY

Within the above stated theoretical framework and explicated methodology, the main research question of this study can be addressed: Developing a framework for a task-based syllabus for teaching isiXhosa L2 in primary schools. The study will investigate the following leading questions:

1. What are the contents of real-world, target tasks for young L2 learners?
2. What is the nature of pedagogic tasks that will motivate and interest young L2 learners?
3. What are the cognitive and linguistic demands of the contents of appropriate, sample tasks?
4. How can tasks be designed and adjusted on a cline of complexity to provide for individuals with different interlanguages at entry level as to promote L2 development?
5. What role does focus on form play in a task-based syllabus for young, beginner learners of isiXhosa?
6. How can vocabulary learning and formulaic language be introduced in a task-based syllabus?
7. What taxonomy of tasks should be proposed and how can tasks be graded as to optimize success for young, beginner L2 learners of isiXhosa?

These questions are explored within multilingualism and SLA literature, integrating and consolidating diverse theoretical perspectives and relevant research findings to present a comprehensive account of current theoretical discourse (Ellis and Shintani, 2014). Remaining committed to the promotion of multilingualism and L2 learning through L2 teaching in primary

education, this study presents applied research findings to inform pedagogic practices of isiXhosa additional language teaching in primary school intermediate phase.

In chapter 2, the study is motivated and contextualized with an affordances theory in multilingualism, language education policy and curriculum design. This approach directs a single-minded investigation clearly defining the focus of study, while Gibson's classical affordance theory provides a holistic and complexity backdrop, which is in line with a contemporary holistic and dynamic systems view (Aronin and Singleton, 2012, Larsen-Freeman, 2015). Task-based language teaching is conceptualised within this affordances theory as a domain with a set of positive affordances, constituting an instructional environment for young beginner L2 learners that is most conducive to L2 use and learning (Aronin and Singleton, 2012).

Chapter 3 valuates this study in terms of its proposition to SLA, endorsing different perspectives on L2 learning and multilingualism, providing a more comprehensive account of infinite and complex phenomena, while maintaining the importance of selective attention identifying the needs of multicompetent learners in specific pedagogic contexts. Central concepts are defined in this chapter as they apply to the investigation and application of communicative tasks for teaching young beginner L2 learners in primary school. Maintaining that instructed SLA research investigates L2 learning aiming at understanding and improving the instructional practices, Ellis and Shintani (2014) advocate a pedagogic impetus, while Ortega (2005) argues that the legitimacy and quality of continuous human research efforts are determined by its social utility value.

Complexity in L2 learning in the instructional setting as the central focus of this study is explored in chapter 4. Complexity is considered both a measure of L2 development and an affordance for L2 development, in task-based language teaching (TBLT). Other significant factors informing the investigation of isiXhosa communicative tasks for young beginner learners, including age of onset, implicit learning, comprehensible input and interaction are described considering various theoretical perspectives. The importance of noticing in L2 acquisition substantiates the role of the teacher, task material design and methodology incorporating focus on form, in the instructed L2 learning setting. Advancing a multilingual model for measuring L2 development, this study considers the context of learning, the properties of the target language and individual learner factors, including previous language knowledge, as impacting on task performance.

In chapter 5, task-based language learning and teaching is analysed describing an appropriate definition for the construct of task that supports a task-based approach to L2 learning and teaching regarding complexity in task and syllabus design for affording L2 development. Research representing a psycholinguistic perspective indicates different task components and task variables for task design, lesson structure and task-based interaction, allowing for variation in TBLT. Research findings from sociocultural perspectives consider the role of teachers and learners' perspectives, emphasizing learner motivation for engagement in interactional learning processes. The application of the Cognition Hypothesis for syllabus design for young beginner L2 learners is explored, regarding learners' more limited cognitive abilities and linguistic experience. In addition, the L2 learning setting of primary schools inform learning contents for task design.

Chapter 6 investigates target tasks for young beginner isiXhosa L2 learners in primary school intermediate phase, analysing cognitive and linguistic complexity to inform syllabus design invoking Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Task contents regard young learners living experiences in primary schools in the Eastern Cape, South Africa. The cognitive and interactive complexity analysis informs pedagogic task sequencing in terms of Robinson's SSARC model, while the linguistic complexity explores a proposed cognitive-linguistic complexity interface invoked by the Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2010).

The linguistic complexity analysis further informs task-based L2 teaching with focus on form creating affordances for noticing in young beginner L2 learners, in chapter 7. Various theories and research findings are consolidated, motivating an affordances theory in L2 teaching, affording general communicative competence and multilingual competence through holistic education practice, in primary school intermediate phase.

In chapter 8, the conclusions of the study regarding complexity in task-based L2 teaching and learning are presented. Implications of these findings regarding affordances, noticing, complexity and the isiXhosa L2 complexity analysis for the field of second language acquisition are considered. Some emerging areas for further research are identified.

CHAPTER TWO

AFFORDANCES THEORY FOR MULTILINGUALISM, LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION POLICY AND CURRICULUM DESIGN

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to motivate task-based syllabus design, which supports the notion expressed by Godfroid, Housen and Boers (2010) that learning is an incremental, cumulative process, while allowing for the adjustment of task complexity. The aim is to describe multilingualism, language-in-education policy and curriculum design as the main criteria in applying affordance theory perspectives to second language learning and teaching in junior public schools. These views are explored within the context of primary schools in the Eastern Cape, South Africa, where isiXhosa is learnt as an additional language.

Affordance theory is recognized by numerous linguists as providing a systematic approach to investigating and applying second language acquisition theories and research (Aronin and Singleton, 2010b, 2012, Dewaele, 2010, Ganem-Gutierrez, 2013, Godfroid, Housen and Boers, 2010 and Van Lier, 2000). In section 2.2 an affordances theory is applied to the Second Language Acquisition field of enquiry. Affordances theory, applied to second language acquisition theories, does not attempt to describe the workings of the mind, nor does it deny the role of cognitive language processing mechanisms in language acquisition. Gibson's classical affordance theory (1977) applied to second language acquisition, simply proposes that language usage and language development are actions following the perception and effectuation of language affordances in the environment.

The present study invokes an affordances theory, with multilingualism, language policies and curriculum design as the main criteria, to the investigation of isiXhosa second language teaching and learning in South African primary schools. This chapter explores affordances for language learning in multilingualism, language policies and curriculum design. In sections 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5 of this chapter, research studies in each of these fields, respectively, are analyzed from an affordance perspective. Societal and individual multilingualism are conceptualized as the knowledge and usage of two or more languages. Language policies from global down to local level are considered to provide affordances for the learning and use of specified languages. In the instructional context, language curriculum design reflects the aims, as well as learning and teaching activities of the instructional programmes. The language curriculum is analyzed to present a set of affordances for language learning.

Supporting Aronin and Singleton's (2010b) conceptualization of social and individual language affordances, the study further explores individual language affordances along with other categories of affordances, in section 2.2.3, suggesting two additional subcategories of individual language affordances: external and internal individual language affordances, in section 2.2.4. In section 2.5 of this chapter, task-based syllabus design and the related principles and practice of task-based language teaching and learning are analyzed to identify manifestations of individual language affordances. Factors relating to task type and task design, such as modified input, focus on form, as well as interactant and interactional variables, including feedback and task repetition, are advanced as external individual language affordances.

The South African government is committed to the development of multilingualism and the protection of linguistic diversity as a national resource (The South African Constitution, Act 108 of 1996). The South African Constitution promotes equal opportunities and equal rights for all people and all languages. The South African education system represents these national ideologies and ambitions (The South African Language in Education Policy, 14 July 1997). In section 2.6 affordances for second language learning in the South African context are analyzed in accordance with the suggested criteria of multilingualism, language policy and curriculum design.

Investigating the particular needs and goals of isiXhosa second language learners and teachers in the primary school, in the Eastern Cape, South Africa through the affordances theory, this study integrates and consolidates theoretical perspectives in SLA and multilingualism, informing pedagogic practice in local contexts. Gibson (1977) posits that affordances in the environment are perceived when they match the observer's needs and mechanisms of perception. Aronin, ÓLaoire and Singleton (2011) advance language nominations as markers of the diversity of languages' functions and status in society. They describe language nominations as referring to language appellations such as mother tongue, first language (L1), second language (L2), foreign language, official language, majority language and minority language (2011:171). According to Aronin, ÓLaoire and Singleton, language nominations are assigned to various languages in accordance with the perceived role and value of a particular language for an individual or community at a particular time. Local language appellations, multilingual practices, learner's age and language learning task design features inform this investigation identifying social, individual internal and external language affordances for isiXhosa additional language learners in primary school intermediate phase.

2.2 APPLYING AN AFFORDANCES THEORY TO SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

This study adopts an affordances theory in second language acquisition studies by invoking Gibson's classic theory of affordances (1977). An affordances theory focuses on what can be perceived, namely actions. According to Gibson (1977) affordances permit activity or actions. Mace (1977) explains Gibson's approach as interpreting the mechanisms of processing in terms of its accomplishments. This approach permits a single-minded investigation of the triggering stimulus, while providing insight into the complex processes associated with second language acquisition. Several researchers have adopted an affordances theory in investigating such complex issues as multilingualism (Aronin and Singleton, 2010b, 2012), input and interaction (Van Lier, 2000), second language development (Ganem-Gutierrez, 2013) and self-perceived communicative competence (Dewaele, 2010).

2.2.1 The concept of affordances

The affordance perspective has its origin in an ecological approach to research (Gibson, 1977). As such, it is conveniently applied within sociocultural studies of second language acquisition. (See section 3.2.2.) However, recently, the concept of affordances is used in relation to cognitive constructs in second language acquisition and multilingual studies, such as typological distance and metalinguistic knowledge (Aronin and Singleton, 2012, Dewaele, 2010).

Gibson (1977) coined the concept of "affordances" to describe a relationship between a specific observer and the environment, in order to explain the value or meaning that things have for different organisms. He explains that the affordance of anything is calculated in accordance to a specific combination of properties with reference to a specific organism (1977:67). When an affordance is perceived, then it permits action. Gibson developed his theory of affordances in relations to perceptual psychophysics from an ecological approach (Mace, 1977). According to Mace, Gibson's theory was evolutionary in two respects. Firstly, he emphasized the importance of the environment in shaping the perceived stimuli. Secondly, he insisted that the perception was direct and not mediated, if the environmental and organismic components of perceptual theory are compatible. Mace contrasts direct perception of environmental properties with indirect perception by means of nonperceptual mediated stages of psychological processing, such as memory, imagination and inferencing. In other words, things are noticed and have meaning because of what they are and because of who is observing. The implication of these views is that the study of perception creates an interface between physics and anatomy,

ecology and psychology, social and cognitive learning process. The issue of the social-cognitive divide in SLA is discussed in more detail in section 3.2.

Gibson's ecological approach to visual processing and concept of affordances have been applied to language learning within the sociocultural tradition by a number of researchers, most notably Van Lier. Gibson stressed the importance of interaction and stated that "the richest and most elaborated affordances of the environment are provided by other animals and for us, other people" (Gibson, 1977:75). Van Lier (2000) emphasizes the importance of interaction in the affordances theory for language acquisition, describing affordances as opportunities for interaction. Supporting Van Lier's notion of affordances as "opportunities for meaningful action", Ganem-Gutierrez (2013) maintains that L2 developmental affordances go beyond the input of the linguistic environment to include physical and psychological mediational tools available for the co-construction of zones of proximal development (ZPD). Ganem-Gutierrez describes the ZPD as the distance between the actual language ability (self-regulated) and potential (other regulated) development (2013:135). She sees the L2 environment as presenting developmental affordances in the form of opportunities for action and interaction, including gestures, L1 use and other L2 meaning-making tools. A more detailed discussion of sociocultural theory (SCT) is presented in section 3.2.2.

Dewaele (2010) invokes the notion of affordances to investigate second language learning, focusing on knowledge of other languages, learners' self-perceived communicative competence and communicative anxiety. Employing the notion of affordances for investigating complex computations in the language learner's mind, he concludes that learners' affordances will depend on their perception of the target language (TL). Dewaele argues not only for the quantity of affordances, but also for the quality of affordances available to the language learner. He maintains that cumulated knowledge of related languages results in perceived cross-linguistic and intralinguistic knowledge, as well as perceived non-linguistic information necessary for judging cultural distance.

Maintaining that language affordances may be social and individual, Aronin and Singleton (2010b) present the concept of language affordances as tangible or non-tangible phenomena that make possible the acquisition and use of a language or languages. Advancing a theory of affordances to investigate multilingualism, they propose a variety of affordance types, including actions and material objects, emotion and attitudes and societal affordances (Aronin and Singleton 2012). Aronin and Singleton explain that different objects or events present different

affordances for individuals with dissimilar physical dispositions and characteristics affording distinct experiences and behaviours.

In summary, affordances are expressed as a relationship between a specific individual or group sharing relevant properties and a stimulus, presenting an opportunity for action.

2.2.2 Gibson's theory of affordances as a perspective in language learning studies

The notion of affordances is regularly used in reference to phenomena that make the learning of language(s) possible or likely. Although Gibson (1977) is credited with creating the concept, subsequent usage of the term in the research literature is inconsistent and often not specific about its meaning (Van Lier, 2013, Ziglari, 2008). Gibson developed and applied a theory of affordances within an ecological approach to optic physics, however, his notion of affordances is compatible with many of the issues raised in SLA research. Central to his theory of affordances, is the process of perceiving. Recently, Aronin and Singleton (2012) adapted Gibson's theory of affordances to the context of multilingual studies and second language learning. Applying the main elements of Gibson's affordance theory to language learning, Aronin and Singleton explore the classical ecological view in Gibson's theory. According to Aronin and Singleton, the theory of affordances provides a valuable framework within which multilingual and second language learning contexts and phenomena can be more clearly investigated and described.

According to Aronin and Singleton (2012), the affordances theory translates different in type, scale and manifestations within a social dimension than in the concrete physical dimension. Aronin and Singleton refer to the concept of "nesting" within affordances to explain manifestations of affordances. Micro contexts of language learning have different manifestations for language learning, but are nested within macro contexts. The social dimension has different levels, from global to national to local, and is a prerequisite for personal or individual affordances. Aronin and Singleton describe a triangular model consisting of the context or setting, the language user and language, emphasizing the necessary and complex mutual trilateral interconnections and interaction amongst the different components that generate language affordances for each specific situation. A second key element of the affordances theory is the idea of mutuality of animal and environment, which Aronin and Singleton (2012) interpret as the dynamic mutuality of identity and milieu in language learning. The learner contributes as much to the context of learning as he or she is influenced by it. Aronin and Singleton describe the human relationship with the environment as going beyond

the physical or material to include the emotional, cognitive, intentional, moral and evaluative dimensions (2012:316). They argue that each specific sociolinguistic situation is both a process and a result of a specific set of affordances. Thirdly, Aronin and Singleton explain Gibson's view of information about the self as accompanying information about the environment, within the awareness phenomena. They maintain that the relevance of these awareness phenomena for language learning relates to the teaching of learning strategies, as well as linguistic and metalinguistic skills, contributing towards the development of learner autonomy. Advancing that teachers and learners are sensitized to language affordances available to them, Aronin and Singleton further maintain that the environment can also be modified so as to create affordances for language learning. The last key point that Aronin and Singleton (2012) identify in accordance to Gibson's original theory of affordances is especially relevant to this study. It is proposed that affordances are furnished according to the size of an animal. Affordances are available in the environment, but whether or not they are perceived and effectuated depends on the specific individual's needs and abilities at a specific time. In the context of language learning this point applies to individual differences in language learners and the specific features of the target language learnt and used. In a language classroom, where learners with different linguistic backgrounds learn together, affordances for language learning will be perceived differently. Aronin and Singleton conclude that, therefore, affordances, including methods, materials and teaching and learning strategies should be individualized according to the needs and abilities of the learner (2012:316).

A crucial concept in L2 learning is attention, defining whether consciousness is necessary for language learning to occur. Gibson (1977), posited the theory of affordances in an attempt to explain how information is directly perceived. "Perceiving" is the conscious detection of a specific combination of properties in the information that constitutes an affordance in relation to the value it has for an animal. Gibson maintained that affordances can only result in actions if they are perceived by the organism. According to Mace (1977), Gibson firstly asked the question of what there is to perceive in terms of the stimulus information, and secondly, how the information is picked up. It is the view of this current study that these questions can be applied to the input-intake relationship in language learning. Truscott and Sharwood Smith (2011) refer to input as potentially processible language data available to the language learner in the environment. They argue that as intake is the information that can be used for acquisition, the conversion from input to intake is central to understanding second language acquisition. Ellis and Shintani (2014) describe "noticing" as the conscious registration of formal features in

the input and they posit that noticing makes acquisition possible. According to Ellis and Shintani (2014) Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis has been very influential in SLA studies. The noticing hypothesis claims that noticing is necessary for learning to take place. Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis has generated a great deal of discussion and disagreement on how much consciousness or awareness is involved in noticing. This is notably relevant when the notions of implicit and explicit learning and focus on form are considered in relation to Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis. Arguing that Schmidt associates noticing with attention to form, Truscott and Sharwood Smith (2011) question whether noticing includes awareness at the level of understanding. Challenging the notion of consciousness in noticing and language learning, they maintain that intake and noticing does not depend on consciousness but on whether the learner's processing mechanisms are compatible with the input. Alcón-Soler (2009) operationalized uptake as learners' noticing of lexical forms in the input and their incorporation of these forms in subsequent oral production in a study, suggesting that explicit focus on form is necessary to make non-salient input available for intake. Ellis and Shintani (2014) explain that Schmidt eventually included incidental learning and implicit learning as involving consciousness and therefore noticing. Godfroid, Housen and Boers (2010) defined incidental learning as a temporary shift from the primary learning goal to a secondary learning goal, without completely losing sight of the primary goal. In discussing the views of Robinson (2003) and Doughty (2001), Godfroid, Housen and Boers argue that noticing requires focal attention, but cannot occur in isolation from meaning or use (2010:173). (See sections 7.2 and 7.3 for a further discussion of noticing in terms of form-meaning-use mappings.) Supporting Robinson's (2003) views on noticing, Godfroid, Housen and Boers (2010) distinguish the detection of stimuli from noticing, which they maintain requires focal attention. Both detected and noticed stimuli enter the long-term memory, but the resulting representations are qualitatively different. They argue that noticing is crucial for a stimulus (linguistic form) to enter working memory. Considering the construct of noticing from this perspective of the affordance theory compares to Gibson's concept of perceiving. Gibson (1977) maintained that affordances can be perceived if the information is detected. The importance of noticing for language development is discussed further in section 4.4.4, and applied within a framework for task-based teaching exploring different degrees of form-focused explicitness with young beginner learners in chapter 7.

Affordances represent the relationship between the input stimulus and the observer's processing mechanism. An affordance only exists in relation to a particular observer. Mace (1977) analyzed Gibson's theory of perception proposing that by investigating and describing the

perceived stimulus first, insight may be gained into the mechanisms of processing. Gibson (1977) further argued that while the nature of the object perceived in the environment does not change, whether the affordance is perceived, depends on the need of the observer. According to Ortega (2009), a cognitivist explanation of learner interlanguage development relies on attention to the input (the stimulus), but she further maintains that multiple factors (positive and negative affordances) simultaneously influence learners' language use and its development. Recognizing its complex and dynamic nature, Ortega defines the term *interlanguage* as the language system constructed by a language learner at any point in development (2009:110). She points out that the term was coined by Selinker (1972). Selinker (2014), however, has a narrower, native speaker model-based view of learners' interlanguage systems. See section 4.4.2.1 for a discussion of interlanguage based on the native speaker model. Aronin and Bawardi (2012) posit that the contemporary language learner's identity and multilinguality account for the speed, effort and ultimate outcome of second language and consecutive language acquisition. According to Thompson (2013), previous language experience has a significant effect on language aptitude. Sáfár and Kormos (2008) investigated foreign language aptitude in terms of working memory, phonological short-term memory and focus on form instruction. They found that language learning experience had a positive effect on foreign language learners' language aptitude. These studies support a dynamic dimension in the affordances theory for language learning and multilingualism. A multilingual model for viewing learners' interlanguage, considering cross-linguistic influence in second language development, is discussed in section 4.4.2.2.

While suggesting that perceptual learning may alter the observer's ability to perceive an affordance, Gibson maintained that the properties of the object is less important to the observer than the affordances it presents. For L2 learning and teaching, the implication is that affordances must be identified in relation to learner's communicative needs, by asking, for example, where does the learner see or hear the target language, and what are his or her communicative needs. Gibson further maintained that if the organism's components of perception are compatible with the environment, basic affordances are usually perceived directly without an excessive amount of learning. In the context of second language learning, it has been suggested that implicit learning is an affordance available to young learners (Llanes and Muñoz, 2013). Language input is noticed directly, and it is the affordance rather than the linguistic properties of the input, that is perceived. (See section 4.2.2 for a discussion of implicit learning.) Hughes (2010) argues that it is not the structure of the target language that young

learners focus on, but the use of the language as a tool in interesting and motivating activities. Wray (2008) points out that children learn language in chunks, and apply this formulaic language to meet their social needs. Formulaic language affords social interaction and an input rich context, which Wray argues are affordances for language development. These views provide motivation for teaching language as chunks, without excessive focus on form. In section 7.3.2.2, views supporting the teaching of formulaic language are further explored for pedagogic practice, and illustrated with formulaic teaching activities for young beginner L2 learners.

Gibson's classic theory of affordances provides a refreshingly practical but thought-provoking perspective on the language learning process. Gibson described the relationship between an organism and its environment as dynamic mutuality in terms of needs resulting in the perceiving of affordances. Affordances are perceived in accordance with needs, when the input stimulus' properties match the organism's processing mechanisms, followed by actions altering the observer's needs relating to new affordances. It is advanced that comprehensible input constitutes positive linguistic affordances matching an individual's developing linguistic needs and language processing mechanisms. (See section 4.3.) The identification of language affordances that match the learner's mechanisms of processing facilitates noticing, allowing for language use and language learning. While effectuated affordances provide valuable insights into the processing mechanisms, as Gibson suggested, it is easier to describe affordances concerning the organism's needs, than the workings of the mind. Considering that learners' linguistic needs depend on the individual learner's level of interlanguage development, an argument can be made for dynamic task-based teaching, where the task, representing a set of language affordances, is described in terms of adjustable task design features. According to Ellis (2003), task-based teaching aims at affording meaning-focussed language use that promotes language development without specifying the linguistic outcomes. Rather, the task objective is a non-linguistic outcome, affording communication and language learning with focus on meaning and focus on form in relation to the individual learner's level of development. In chapter 6, pedagogic tasks with adjustable design features, affording language development in young beginner learners, are illustrated in terms of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. (Task-based teaching is further explored, identifying language affordances in chapter 5.)

2.2.3 Categories of affordances

An affordances theory in SLA requires terminology that is specific for the discipline, and relevant to the concept of affordances. Categories and subcategories provide valuable tools for describing and classifying complex phenomena in multilingual societies and individuals. Findings in SLA research can be explored and categorized in terms of the affordances theory.

In Gibson's original theory, he referred to *natural affordances*, which humans are capable of changing to create *manufactured or cultural affordances*. These categories present a natural evolution of tools. For instance, a tree stump within a certain time-space context affords a seat for a person with a matching size, while a carpenter could make a chair from the wood in answer to his need for a seat, which could in time gain cultural value being associated with a particular community. With reference to the study of Segalowitz (2001), Aronin and Singleton (2010b) support Segalowitz's notion that language is like any other physical environment possessing affordances in relation to a specific interactant. Language constantly develops with use in terms of form, meaning and function within a space-time context associated with a certain subculture (Keck and Kim, 2014, Larsen-Freeman, 2015). Koster (2013) points out that linguistic functionality is created by human invention and thus language is used as a tool to adapt innate brain structure to new cultural applications. Supporting an ecological perspective on language learning, Van Lier (2000:252) explains that what becomes an affordance depends on what an organism does, what it wants and what is useful to it. He argues that if language learners are active and engaged, they will perceive linguistic affordances and use them for linguistic action. He maintains that the environment is full of opportunities for interaction. Van Lier introduces the notion of *interactional affordances*, which he proposes include all linguistic and more general semiotic signs. Gibson (1977) further distinguished between *positive* and *negative affordances*. He insisted that such positive and negative affordances are determined with reference to a specific observer, however not as subjective values, but because of a specific observer's experience due to, or opportunities presented by, the properties of the environment. This notion can be illustrated with regard to anxiety in L2 learning. Taking into account that language anxiety can be either facilitating or debilitating for L2 learning, it can be considered both a positive and negative language affordance (Ellis, 2012, Ortega, 2009). The issue of language anxiety as a negative and positive affordance is discussed further in section 2.2.4.2. As Gibson argued, the properties of the environment are the same, though it presents various experiences and opportunities, particular to the observer perceiving positive and negative affordances. This issue is explored further in section 7.4 with reference to Anderson's (2015)

affordance approach to lesson planning, converging diverse applications of the affordances theory for multilingualism within pedagogic practice.

The notion of shared affordances describes a relationship between a group of individuals and their shared environment. Aronin and Singleton (2010b) refer to Gibson's notion of affordances as properties of the environment in exploring the concept of *social affordances*. Social affordances, in relation to an individual's particular disposition, could trigger or prohibit action. Aronin and Singleton posit that social affordances can be physical, such as objects and people with particular skills, or non-physical, for instance people's attitudes or social perceptions. Arguing that social affordances can be both tangible and non-tangible phenomena, they list manifestations of language affordances in society, including school buildings, learning materials and language policy. They further maintain that affordances can be material or ideational and include events or persons with special attributions. My own isiXhosa second language learning experience was spurred on by the release of Nelson Mandela from prison in 1990 and my first voting experience during the referendum in 1992, when South Africans voted for the abolition of Apartheid. For me, both past events and future events, as well as a charismatic political leader, were conducive to positive feelings towards the target language and target language community, which could be described as evaluative and emotional affordances (Aronin and Singleton, 2010b).

With reference to the work of Scarantino (2003), Aronin and Singleton (2012) discuss scales of opposition for categorizing affordances. They describe a continuum between *sure-fire* and *probability* affordances, where *sure-fire affordances* lead to action with certainty, while *probability affordances* lead to action with some positive probability p less than 1. For instance, it could be argued that isiXhosa additional language subject teaching in primary schools is a probability affordance for language learning and multilingualism, due to the inherent time constrictions of the school curriculum limiting exposure to target language input, as well as the physical restrictions that a classroom environment has on quantity and quality language output for individual learners. On the other hand, isiXhosa as a language of learning and teaching (LoLT) in an immersion context could constitute as a sure-fire affordance due to the compelling conditions for language use and extensive exposure to the target language. However, Gobingca (2013) reports on the negative effect that isiXhosa as LoLT had on the education of non-IsiXhosa speaking learners in primary school, in Mthatha, arguing that a lack of educational support contributed to their poor performance and frequent absenteeism. Gobingca advances that teacher training equipping teachers to deal with linguistic diversity in primary school

classes is required to ensure more effective teaching and learning. This is an example of a sure-fire affordance, which was not effectuated. Aronin and Singleton (2012) propose that affordances work in sets of positive affordances, creating a domain that is a most conducive time-space for a language learner to learn or use as specific language or languages.

A second scale for the categorization of affordances in society, proposed by Aronin and Singleton (2012) and taken from Scarantino (2003), distinguishes *goal affordances* and *happening affordances*. Goal affordances are triggered by the selection of a goal, whereas happening affordances are not determined by choice but manifested in the triggering circumstances. Aronin and Singleton posit that goal affordances have to be executed, therefore, requiring more time and energy than happening affordances. Foreign language learning policies in Europe are examples of goal affordances requiring extensive time and energy to effectuate. Triggered by top-down decision-making and initiation, these language policies do not guarantee local support. (The outcomes of a number of language learning policy affordances are discussed in section 2.4.2.) According to Aronin and Singleton (2012) living in a target language community is a happening affordance, because the manifestation is in the triggering circumstances. Maintaining that sure-fire and happening affordances are stronger predictors for an action, such as language learning or language use, to be triggered, Aronin and Singleton also point out that individual motivation and goal setting play an important role. In local context, the findings of Plüddermann, Braam, Broeder, Extra and October (2004) illustrate this point. The South African education policy supports mother-tongue education in primary school foundation phase, but many parents prefer to send their children to former model-C or private schools in order to be taught in English. Plüddermann, Braam, Broeder, Extra and October describe how Afrikaans and Xhosa communities in the Western Cape seek English-mainly education in an instrumentally-driven quest. This is an example of a happening affordance for mother-tongue education which is not effectuated due to an opposing goal affordance for second language learning.

Aronin and Singleton (2010b) explain *language affordances* distinguishing between social language affordances and individual language affordances. *Social language affordances* make possible the use of a language(s). At global level, they list technology, ideational shifts and mobility of users as language affordances. At national level, there are numerous countries where language and educational policies must be considered positive language affordances (Adamson and Davidson, 2003, Baldauf, Kaplan, Kamwangamalu and Bryant, 2011, Costa and Lambert, 2009, Lanvers, 2011, Menken, 2006, Wildsmith, 2013). At local level, in

communities and schools, the availability of qualified language teachers and school curricula are examples of social language affordances. Aronin and Singleton point out that social language affordances are time-space specific and can be biological (such as the human capacity to learn languages), linguistic (referring to language specific properties), physical (including geographical relationships), historical or political and cultural or religious. Aronin and Singleton maintain that social language affordances are prerequisite for perceiving and effectuation or uptake of individual language affordances. Aronin and Singleton state that *individual language affordances* are highly variable, as they include personality traits, age, aptitude, linguistic skills, metalinguistic awareness and capacity to perceive.

So far, the affordances theory advancing different categories and scales for categorizing language affordances was described, classifying complex multilingual and L2 learning phenomena within pertinent circumstances of pedagogic practice. Two further subcategories are proposed here: *External individual language affordances*, which are available due to a learner's exposure to a language, and *internal individual language affordances*, which are effectuated through a learner's involvement with a target language. These two subcategories are useful in categorizing research findings that support the notion of individual affordances for L2 development. However, they are not always explicitly distinct and may overlap, such as cognitive tools including the use of L1 and learning strategies. (See section 2.2.4.2.) In summary, external affordances exist outside of the learner and can be manipulated, whereas internal affordances are particular to the learner and difficult to control. Furthermore, social as well as external and internal individual language affordances work together in complementary sets to create an optimal domain for language acquisition.

2.2.4 Subcategories of individual language affordances

Individual language affordances are facilitated by social language affordances, but are specific for each individual language learner. In the previous section, it was proposed that external individual language affordances exist in L2 learners' exposure to the target language, whereas internal language affordances can only be effectuated through a particular language learner's involvement with the target language. In other words, external individual language affordances are required preconditions for individual language affordances, while internal language affordances facilitate the perceivance of external affordances.

In order to identify individual language affordances, the needs and goals of young learners are considered. According to Philp and Duchesne (2008) young learners are motivated by social

goals of establishing friendships and acquiring desirable social positioning. In older children, the need to secure respectable grades can be linked to the latter. Adamson and Davidson (2003) report on strong academic competition impelling the accumulation of academic knowledge and skills amongst Hong Kong primary school learners. According to Oliver, Philp and Mackey (2008), young learners in the instructional context need more external regulation and teacher's input than adult learners. Cekaite (2008) describes interactional affordances in the classroom context, maintaining that multiple participation structures, awareness of the ever present audience and competition for securing the teacher's attention shape young learner's needs and goals.

Theoretical perspectives on the young learner's learning needs and research on multilingual and L2 learning practices are consolidated with the affordances theory, applying different categories and scales of affordances, and suggesting external and internal individual language affordances for young beginner learners.

2.2.4.1 External individual language affordances

External individual language affordances may be created as goal affordances, although they do not guarantee effectuation of language affordances resulting in language use and language learning. Research findings and theoretical perspectives on external learner factors support an affordances theory in multilingualism and L2 learning advancing the manipulation of learning conditions towards more sure-fire affordances in pedagogic practices. (In section 4.3 these external learner factors are analyzed further within SLA literature.)

Societal multilingualism affords individual multilingualism. Societal multilingualism refers to contexts where more than one language is used, although speakers may be monolinguals. *Multilingualism* conceptualized as an external individual language affordance describes the individual learner's quantity and quality exposure to more than one language. Jessner (2008) distinguishes between horizontal and vertical patterns of multilingualism. According to Jessner, speakers who live in horizontal multilingualism live in their own geographical spaces and are often monolingual. In South Africa, there are eleven official languages, however many South Africans do not communicate with speakers of other languages, observing socio-cultural barriers. In *vertical multilingualism* speakers of different languages are in daily contact with other languages. Cenoz and Gorter (2008) advance that the linguistic landscape provides valuable non-interactive input, which is concrete and meaningful in the here-and-now context. If the affordance is relevant to the learner's needs or goals, it will be noticed. For a child, who

seeks affiliation and social recognition, vertical multilingualism is a happening, external individual language affordance. However, Jessner (2008) points out that individual exposure depends on individual space, which differs with regard to spatial organization and, ultimately, depends on attitude. (The concept of multilingualism is discussed further in sections 2.3 and 3.3.)

Exposure to the target language constitutes input. Input can be interactive or non-interactive. Ellis and Shintani (2014) lay emphasis on the need for extensive L2 input in instructed language learning. Pica (2013) refers to Corder's (1967) concept of input as the universe of data available to learners, but considers what makes that input perceivable and available for intake. She posits that learners need positive and negative evidence. Ellis (2012) maintains the importance of attention to linguistic features. Del Pilar Garcia Mayo and Alcón Soler (2013) describe *modified input* that increases the salience of certain target structures through simplification, elaboration or enhancement. A more detailed discussion of language input follows in section 4.3.1. With reference to the views of Robinson (1995), Del Pilar Garcia Mayo and Alcón Soler (2013) point out that the salience of input depends also on learner-internal factors, hence on the availability of internal individual language affordances. When language forms are the content of language input in the instructional language learning setting, it is regarded as form-focused or grammar-focused instruction. According to Spada (2011) a growing body of evidence supports the notion that explicit form-focused instruction is an affordance for unanalyzed, spontaneous target language production. However, she acknowledges the importance of learner readiness in terms of L2 proficiency, the role of L1 influence, along with other individual learner differences. Tomita and Spada (2013) advance the view that form-focused instruction creates affordances for L2 communication by creating a social context for learners to establish their identities as L2 learners, promoting greater L2 investment. De la Fuente (2006) posits that form-focused task-based language teaching (TBLT) has a positive effect on vocabulary learning, and further suggests that the form-focused component is best included at the end of the lesson. Ellis (2003) proposes a modular approach to integrating focus on form in TBLT, where initial L2 acquisition is lexical in nature with mainly unfocused communicative tasks. As the learner's L2 develops, focused tasks and focus on form are gradually introduced. According to Shak and Gardner (2008), young L2 learners, between the ages of nine and twelve years, reported a positive attitude towards *focus on form* tasks embedded in meaningful communicative contexts. Task familiarity, contextual support and pair or group work were found to enhance enjoyment and motivation. These findings are in line with young learners'

social goals and needs for external regulation. In chapter 7, focus on form and form-focused tasks are illustrated with specific pedagogic activities for young beginner L2 learners, presenting affordances for noticing and language development.

The importance of interaction for language learning is theorized and supported by SLA research (Ellis, 2012, Ellis and Shintani, 2014, Gass, Mackey and Pica, 1998, Long, 2015, Pica, 2013). An affordances theory considering *interaction* as an external individual language affordance regards the relationship between the linguistic environment and the L2 learner's processing mechanisms. Interaction facilitates comprehensible input through negotiation of meaning. Del Pilar Garcia Mayo and Alcón Soler (2013) refer to interactionally modified input as to include confirmation and comprehension checks, as well as clarification requests. Van Lier (2000) broadens the notion of interaction to include all linguistic and all other semiotic signs affording communication, as presenting interactional affordances. According to Alcón Soler and Del Pilar Garcia Mayo (2008), SLA research has provided overwhelming evidence of negotiation during interaction creating language learning opportunities. Interaction and related research findings are analyzed further in section 4.3.2. Pica (2013) advances that interaction affords language acquisition by providing input, feedback and opportunities to modify output. Alcón Soler and Del Pilar Garcia Mayo (2008) maintain that feedback received during interaction is associated with L2 learning. *Interactional feedback* is advanced as an external individual affordance, however, research indicates that context and language proficiency are important factors deciding feedback type. Corrective feedback is a form of negative evidence that can be more, or less explicit. Ellis (2012) describes input-providing corrective feedback, including recasts and explicit correction only, and output-prompting corrective feedback, which includes repetition, clarification checks, metalinguistic clues and elicitation. Ellis and Shintani (2014) support the use of explicit corrective feedback to ensure uptake. Gurzynski-Weiss and Révész (2012) underscore the importance of considering the context, such as determined by task type and task stage, when considering the effectiveness of teacher feedback. Supporting this notion, Ellis (2012) cites a study by Lyster and Mori (2006) indicating that instructional context and learner orientation, whether it is focus on form or meaning, predict the extent to which prompts or recasts induce higher levels of uptake and repair. On the other hand, Ammar and Spada (2006) found that low-proficiency learners benefit significantly more from recasts than prompts. From these studies, it is clear that feedback acts as an external individual affordance for L2 acquisition, however, maintaining the importance of considering internal individual language affordances when deciding on the type of feedback.

With regard to these theories and perspectives on interaction and L2 learning, research into pedagogic practices with young beginner L2 learners further extends our understanding of this relationship presenting language affordances. Philp and Duchesne (2008) explore the benefits of interaction for language development in young second language learners. They distinguish between peer interaction and interaction with an adult (i.e. the teacher). Peer interaction is described as providing opportunity for practice through imitation, repetition and language play, which include mimicry and shared dialects. They maintain that peer interaction provides input, including language chunks that are picked up, scaffolding the meaning-making process. Philp and Duchesne further maintain that the task and peer interaction provide a context that supports the interchanging of meaning with minimal language use. Philp and Duchesne's findings endorse the notion that peer interaction is a positive affordance for beginner language learning, meeting young learners' social and communicative needs and goals. On the other hand, they also found that peers act as gatekeepers, and advanced that without peer acceptance, peer interaction can be a negative affordance for language learning. Philp and Duchesne describe interaction with teachers or other adults as resulting in more instances of negotiation of meaning, recasting, feedback, modified output, and scaffolding through comprehensible input or "teacher talk". These findings support Oliver, Philp and Mackey's (2008) views regarding young learners' need for external regulation. (The issue of teacher talk is discussed further in section 4.4.1.1.)

A central question in SLA research is how task-based interaction facilitates the process of L2 learning. An analysis of the different task design variables identifies diverse *task types* presenting language affordances for L2 learners. (See section 4.3 for a more detailed investigation of research on task design.) According to Del Pilar Garcia Mayo and Alcón Soler (2013), information-gap tasks, where information exchange is required, increase the number of opportunities for learners to interact and modify their interaction. Bourke (2006) argues that beginner learners need both communicative tasks to facilitate fluency through interaction, as well as enabling tasks, which afford accuracy through focus on form. According to Ellis (2003), *task repetition* has a marked effect on the quantity and efficacy of interaction. Investigating task-based interaction, Skehan, Xiaoyue, Qian and Wang (2012) compared the following task design variables: task familiarity in the form of content domain knowledge or schemata, on-line planning (during task) or strategic planning (pre-task) and task repetition. They found that task repetition had resulted in the most task-based interaction, but on-line planning also had a stronger effect than familiarity. Pinter (2007) investigated task repetition with young (10-11

years old), low proficiency level learners. She advances that task repetition is an affordance for learners to display their growing ability to interact with peers, as they gain control of the specific type of task. She includes the task design variables of interlocutor familiarity and independency of steps as further positive language affordances, increasing practice opportunities. Pinter argues that repetition allows learners to focus on linguistic forms, while their process resourcing capacities are freed up. She maintains that when the learners repeat the task, they can organize and optimize their language resources more effectively, shifting their attention to producing more complex grammar and more appropriate vocabulary. In their study, Ahmadian and Tavakoli (2012) found that simultaneous use of on-line planning and repetition enhances accuracy, fluency and complexity significantly. On the other hand, Willis and Willis (2007) suggest that introducing a time limit and shortening the time with every repetition adds a game dimension to the task and makes it more challenging and fun.

The affordances theory advances that affordances, including task-based interaction, create opportunities for language acquisition, when tasks are designed according to the needs and goals of the learners. Considering the specific needs of young beginner learners in the instructional L2 learning setting, Philp and Duchesne (2008) advocate the view that tasks should address children's developing linguistic, social and cognitive needs, maintaining that these dimensions of development are interconnected in the young learner. Supporting this view, Hughs (2010) suggests that tasks for children should support the teaching and learning of a target language along with more general cognitive development, as these are more likely to motivate children. She insists that tasks should have actual relevance for the child by involving the learner in concrete and physical activities. Tasks must be hands-on and set in the here-and-now context. Bourke (2006) expands on this notion and posits that children learn best by doing. Tasks must reflect the world of the child, draw on the experiential domain, involve genuine communication, and include games and fun activities. These issues are explored further in section 5.5.3, where literature regarding content and language integrated learning (CLIL), task complexity and TBLT methods is investigated and integrated, suggesting a framework for task-based syllabus design for young beginner learners.

In summary, SLA research findings and theoretical perspectives on what makes L2 use and L2 development possible, motivate the identification of external individual language affordances, including multilingualism, the linguistic landscape, elaborated and modified input, focus on form, task types that make interactional demands, and other interactional affordances such as corrective feedback and task repetition. In order for these probability affordances to advance

on the scale towards sure-fire affordances, it is necessary to create a domain for language learning, presenting a set of interacting language affordances, including social, external and internal individual language affordances. The view that internal individual language affordances can determine whether external language affordances are effectuated emerges from a number of the studies discussed in this section, underscoring the importance of individual internal learner factors for L2 acquisition (Amar and Spada, 2006 Del Pilar Garcia Mayo and Alcón Soler, 2013, Ellis, 2012, Jessner, 2008).

2.2.4.2 Internal individual language affordances

Internal individual language affordances require social language affordances to be perceived and effectuated, they similarly depend on external individual language affordances requiring exposure to language. Importantly, the level at which the learner engages with the target language is determined by internal individual language affordances.

Multilingualism conceptualized as an internal individual language affordance is a measure of knowledge and ability in more than one language promoting further language learning and use. Thompson (2013) investigated the relationship between previous language experience and language aptitude. She found that previous language experience, including very limited experience, has a significant effect on language aptitude. Positing that multilingualism is the acquisition of two or more languages, Aronin and Bawardi (2012) maintain that diversity is defined by individual differences existing within a world that permits greater mobility and more permeable borders, including social and linguistic fluency, creating limitless possibilities for multilingualism. Aronin and Bawardi further maintain that due to the dynamic and complex nature of individual multilingualism, the cognitive state of the multilingual is different for each individual language learner. They advance that this results in an increasingly diverse language learner population. The diversity of multilingualism is discussed further in section 2.3.1. Cenoz (2013b) identifies metalinguistic awareness, language learning experience, and intercultural and linguistic repertoire as affordances available to multilinguals learning an additional language. Dmitrenko (2017) maintain the availability and effective use of language learning strategies for multilingual learners learning an additional language. Jessner (2008) and Barac and Bailystok (2011) argue that multilingualism is an affordance for general cognitive development and higher functions of intelligence, such as attention, selection, creative and divergent thinking, as well as communicative sensitivity. Advocating the value of bilingualism for third language (L3) learning, Cenoz (2013b) maintains that social affordances associated

with socioeconomic and socioeducational status have an important function in facilitating the individual language affordance of multilingualism.

SLA research investigates the relationship between language aptitude and language use, indicating a positive correlation (DeKeyser, Alfi-Shabtay and Ravid, 2010, Granena and Long, 2012, Robinson, 2005b). See section 4.2.3 for a further discussion of language aptitude theories and research findings, supporting a view of language aptitude as a dynamic and complex construct. Interaction was identified as an external individual language affordance, but according to Ellis (2012) individual cognitive factors, such as attention and working memory, mediate the effectuation of these affordances. In discussing the views of Robinson (2002), Ellis (2012) describes how learners' abilities may be grouped into complexes that assist learning by responding to specific type of instructional conditions or task type. Robinson's Triadic Componential Framework for task classification includes learner factors of ability variables, including aptitude and working memory (Robinson and Gilabert, 2007). Robinson (2010) maintains that more complex task types in terms of parameter setting indicated in this framework are negative language affordances for individual learners with low ability settings. Robinson's Triadic Framework is discussed further in section 5.4.1. Del Pilar García Mayo and Alcón Soler (2013) reviewed a number of studies indicating that attention and working memory, in particular phonological memory, play an important role in conversational interaction and noticing of recasts. In accordance with the affordances theory, this point can be illustrated as follows: *attention*, leading to "noticing the gap", and *working memory* are internal affordances that facilitate the perceiving of interactional affordances, including cognitively complex task types and corrective feedback in the form of recasts.

Research studies indicate how affective and conative factors, including *anxiety* and *motivation*, are positive and negative internal individual language affordances, determining depth of language processing and uptake of external language affordances, including interaction and participation in communicative task types (MacIntyre and Doucette, 2010, Manolopoulou-Sergi, 2004). Underscoring the importance of language anxiety and willingness to communicate as affective factors determining language learning, Ellis (2012) maintains that these factors vary according to the social context. Ellis analyzed several studies on the effects of anxiety, concluding that *language anxiety* is a negative affordance for the quantity of participation and the uptake of recasts. He suggests that smaller group or pair work could reduce anxiety levels in learners. On the other hand, Ortega (2009) points out that studies investigating L2 anxiety have also revealed a correlation with learners' concerns for accuracy,

pointing out that mild levels of anxiety are associated with more investment and effort in L2 learning, constituting positive internal individual language affordances. *Willingness to communicate* is regarded a most significant determiner for L2 interaction. According to Ortega (2009), L2 learners' willingness to communicate is mainly predicted by L2 communicative confidence, which is afforded by self-perceived competence and attitudes shaped by frequency and quality of past L2 contact. As such, willingness to communicate is viewed as a dynamic internal individual affordance that is determined by the context, proficiency and L2 experience. According to Ghosn (2013), motivation determines how much time and effort learners are prepared to spend on learning tasks. She describes novelty, curiosity and salience of information or high levels of activity as affording situational interest for young learners, positing that it is an affordance for learner engagement. Van den Branden (2008) maintains that task conditions relating to task type and interlocutor variables, including familiarity, attitude and proficiency levels, effectuate motivation for interaction and negotiation of meaning. Eddy-U (2015) discusses Dörnyei's (2009) motivational model, and refer to dynamic motivation conglomerates as optimal combinations of cognitive and emotional factors, interacting to determine a learner's engagement with a task. These conglomerates can be considered a set of affordances that include interest and social elements. However, Eddy-U points out that the more interesting and meaningful tasks are, the more likely L1 use is for peer interaction, suggesting negative probability L2 affordances. Eddy-U (2015) discusses Egbert's (2003) motivational flow along with Dörnyei's (2009) views, stressing the importance of difficulty level that matches the learner's ability, opportunity for focussed attention, clarity of instructions and absence of distractions. These views support a mutual, dynamic relationship between social, external and internal individual language affordances, intra-acting and interacting within a given space-time, creating a set of positive or negative happening affordances.

An important individual language affordance concerning the current study is the L2 learner's age. According to Muñoz (2013), the influence of learners' age on second language learning is a crucial question in SLA. Ortega (2009) describes the issue of *age of onset* as relating to the question of how early or late in life second language learning should commence to ensure the best outcomes. According to Muñoz (2008), there are two critical factors involved: cognitive maturity and amount of exposure. Llanes and Muñoz (2012) maintain that the effect of age of onset on language acquisition and ultimate attainment is mediated by context. They compared young and older learners in both formal and informal instruction contexts, concluding that

young learners performed better in naturalistic settings, where there is unlimited exposure to the target language, while older learners attained better results in a foreign language instructional context. These results are linked to the young learners' ability to acquire a language through implicit learning, relying on massive exposure, and resulting in a fluency advantage in aural and oral skills. The internal language affordances relating to the learner's age, including language aptitude and cognitive maturity on the one hand, and, on the other hand, implicit learning, mediate the effectuation of external affordances differentiated in terms of quantity of language exposure and type of input. (See section 4.2.2 for a further discussion of implicit and explicit learning in reference to learners' age.) In discussing Long's (1990) views, Muñoz (2013) suggests that not all areas of language may be affected by age of onset at the same time. Abrahamson (2012) found a significant correlation between age of onset and ultimate attainment of phonological and morphosyntactic aspects of the target language. According to Abrahamson, native-like attainment is highly probable for children aged six or younger, and relatively rare between the ages of six and thirteen, but highly unlikely for learners older than 13 years. Foucart and French-Mestre's neurolinguistic study (2013) indicates that conceptual and semantic processing is nativelike up to the age of onset of 11 years. In section 3.4.1, more research results describing the relationship between the age of the learner and uptake of linguistic input are presented, informing pedagogic decisions for instructional practices in the primary school intermediate phase. (See chapter 7.)

Older learners' advantage in rate of learning is attributed to their cognitive maturity, greater linguistic experience, motivation and facilitating literacy skills. Muñoz (2008) argues that in an instructional setting, where there is limited learning time, the issue of rate must be considered as crucial. DeKeyser (2013) supports the notion that contextual factors, such as quality and quantity of input, as well as schooling, constitute external individual language affordances, but he maintains that individual variables, including motivation, attitude and identity, are essential for obtaining a better understanding of the age effects in L2 acquisition. Lobo (2013) investigated whether an earlier start is better for L2 learning in the lower primary school grades, with English as the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) for Creative Arts and Physical Education of Dutch L1 speakers. She found that in general the older learners enjoyed the lessons more, coping better with the longer instructional times. She concluded that a later age of onset is more beneficial for L2 learning, when comparing the attitudes and motivation of the Grade 1 with the Grade 3 learners. For older learners, who rely more on explicit learning, the use of cognitive tools, such as the *use of L1, learning strategies* and *vocabulary or formulaic*

language learning is advanced as individual language affordances. De la Colina and Del Pilar Garcia Mayo (2009) posit that L1 use provides essential cognitive support for focusing attention and understanding meaning through metacognitive talk, in an educational context where learners share a L1. Hall and Cook (2012) consider L1 use within a multilingual and sociocultural perspective that acknowledges learner multilingual identities and intercultural competence. They advance the view that changes in the academic and contemporary political environment create social affordances for and create links between code-switching, speaker identity and symbolic values of language. This view is explored further in section 4.4.2.2. Ellis and Shintani (2014) acknowledge that learner strategy training has a role to play in sustaining learners' motivation by building learners' confidence in their learning abilities. According to Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010), instruction in metacognitive processes of listening provides beginner learners with knowledge and tools necessary to make learning more meaningful, relevant and interesting. They found that the learners were able to transfer learning, applying it inside and outside the classroom to authentic text, advancing listening strategy teaching as an affordance for noticing.

Ellis (2012) describes some of the benefits of formulaic language learning for L2 acquisition and use, which can be linked to the needs and goals of young learners. These include what Ellis refer to as framework goals in the L2 classroom, such as obtaining materials they need, drawing the teacher's attention, or establishing social positioning by defending their rights assertively. Ellis states that formulaic language also serves psycholinguistic and sociopragmatic functions, while increasing fluency during on-line planning. Timmis (2010, 2013) illustrates some of these functions of formulaic language, suggesting that it can help learners to set a socially appropriate tone, help them to organize their utterances more effectively, or simply provides more time during on-line processing. Timmis advocates the value of corpus findings for identifying formulaic sequences, but he stresses the importance of considering difficulty and functionality along with frequency, when selecting language features to teach. In section 7.3.2.2, these theories regarding formulaic language learning are integrated, informing pedagogic decisions with suggested teaching activities for young beginner isiXhosa L2 learners.

In summary, it has been argued that internal individual language affordances determine the level at which learners engage with the target language, and include cognitive and affective factors. However, internal affordances, like multilingualism, age and various cognitive tools

available to L2 learners, are viewed as dynamic and influenced by context and individual learner factors such as proficiency.

2.2.5 The benefit of an affordances theory for this study

The affordances theory offers an explanatory and a methodological function for this current study. The research is by necessity selective, when describing acquisition processes and research findings that relate to young beginner learners. However, Gibson's classical affordance theory provides a holistic and complexity backdrop, which is in line with a contemporary holistic and dynamic systems view (Aronin and Singleton, 2012). Social language affordances are prerequisite for individual language affordances, which are interconnected, and interact with the context and with the learner's language(s). Aronin and Singleton (2012) advance that affordances are best considered in complementary sets, creating a domain addressing the needs and goals of language learners. In order to optimally match an individual's needs or goals, a domain which include social, individual external and individual internal affordances should be considered.

Individual language affordances can be determined by examining learners' interlanguage to identify the learner's learning needs, without analysing the complex mechanisms at work during language processing. Pica (2013) refers to Corder's (1967) concept of input as the universe of data available to learners. Intake, on the other hand, is the input that is perceived or noticed by learners, and, consequently, internalized and integrated into their interlanguage system. When there is evidence of input in learners' interlanguage, then the language use presents uptake. Supporting Robinson's (2005) proposal that links cognitive abilities and affective factors to uptake, Ortega (2009) discusses the construct of L2 aptitude affording L2 acquisition. Pica describes language processing as learners analyzing the input that is noticed. These concepts are analysed further within language processing theories in section 3.2.3.2.1. (The issues of language aptitude and noticing are discussed in further detail in sections 4.2.3 and 4.4.4, respectively.) Gibson's (1977) affordance theory does not attempt to scrutinize the processing mechanisms, but considers the actions resulting from effectuated affordances. He proposed that it is the affordances which are perceived, rather than the properties of the stimulus. Considering the infinite possibilities and the dynamic nature of the concept *affordance*, it would be simpler to start by asking what the young individual's needs or goals are, and then to identify matching language affordances. Mace (1977) interpreted Gibson's strategy as first asking what there is to perceive (i.e. affordances), and then to speculate on the how (i.e. the processing

mechanisms). The following diagram (figure 2.1) illustrates an affordances theory applied to complex issues regarding input and intake.

In figure 2.1, the top circle represents the learning environment with the external language affordances, which is composed of the available input. (See section 4.3 for a further discussion of external language affordances, including research findings and theories regarding external learner factors.) The bottom two circles represent the language learner. The circle on the bottom left presents the individual internal language affordances. These rely on the availability of external language affordances. When the learner's needs and goals, as well as the learner's cognitive, affective and conative abilities, match the available language input and interaction, then the individual external language affordances are perceived, and result in noticed input. This match is presented by the intersection of external and internal individual affordances' circles. (See section 4.2 for different views regarding language aptitude and other internal language affordances.) Once the noticed input is integrated into the learner's interlanguage through the language processing system it is considered language intake. These processes rely in learner readiness (see section 3.2.3.2.1). The present affordances theory does not regard the workings of the language processing mechanism (see the bottom right circle in figure 2.1), however, previous language experience and background languages are considered to impact on the process. (See section 3.3 for a discussion of multilingual studies and multicompetence.) The intersection between the bottom circles, indicating a match between the properties of the input and the learner's processing mechanism, presents intake. In section 4.4.4 noticing and language processing are discussed with regard to measuring L2 development, as this pertains to dynamic L2 instruction and assessment, informing pedagogic practices. Finally, the learner's resulting actions are considered observable evidence of language affordance effectuation and uptake, indicating language acquisition. This intersection between the learner's language processing and the learning environment circles, representing interlanguage, illustrates the dynamic, mutual relationship between language affordances and the language learner, or learner output and language input.

An affordances theory for task-based teaching considers the task as creating a language environment furnishing young learners' social and academic needs, goals and interests, with external language affordances that can be manipulated through task design. The Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2007, 2010, 2011a) allows adjustment of task complexity matching a learner's linguistic level of development, effectuating individual internal language affordances

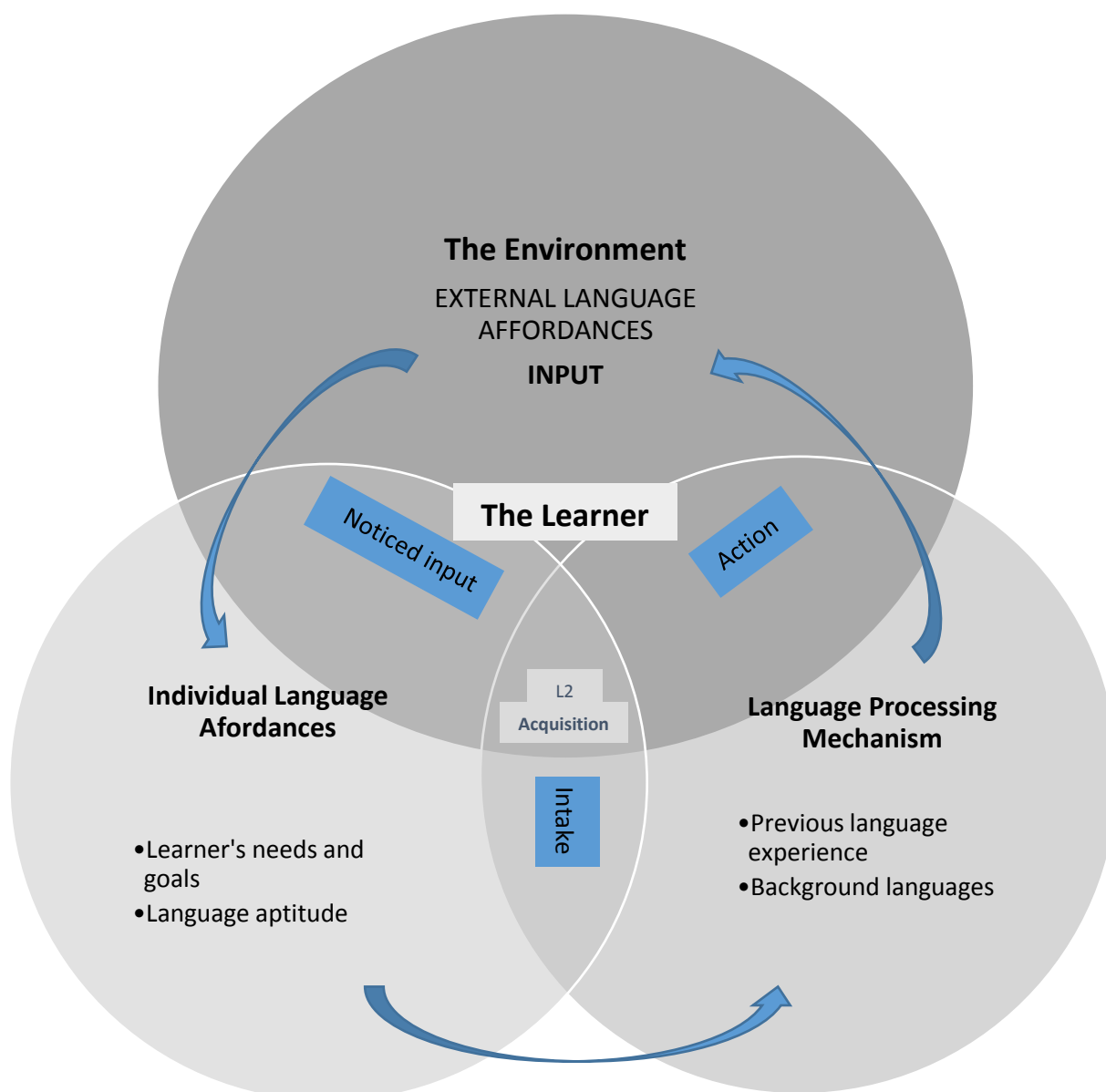


Figure 2.1: The affordances theory in L2 acquisition

through learner engagement with the TL. Learners' task performances are dynamically assessed, informing decisions regarding task repetition and task recycling in terms of Robinson's (2010) SSARC model, affording language development. These theories are discussed further in section 3.2.4, and applied to the context of young beginner isiXhosa L2 learners in primary school intermediate phase in chapter 6, analysing cognitive and linguistic complexity of task design for informing pedagogic practices.

In summary, this affordances theory proposes three principles for investigating and creating positive language affordances: affordances are perceived in the environment (including the linguistic environment) in accordance with the organism's needs, therefore, first ask what the

learner's needs are. Secondly, a language affordance represents a relationship between the properties of the environment and the size of the organism, interpreted as the cognitive and linguistic level of development. The implication of this second principle is that the learner's age and language competence inform the creation of positive language affordances. Thirdly, language affordances are in a relationship of dynamic mutuality with the language learner, described as learners' changing learning needs resulting from effectuated affordances, noticing and subsequent actions, including language use and language development. Aronin and Singleton (2012) offer dimensions of affordance studies in multilingualism, language teaching and learning and language policy. A method for investigating issues relating to multilingualism, language policy and language curriculum considers these dimensions of affordances that include identifying existing affordances, analysing the perception and effectuation of affordances, as well as deliberating the creation of positive affordances.

2.3 THE AFFORDANCES THEORY FOR MULTILINGUALISM

The concept of multilingualism is a broad term used with reference to the acquisition or use of two or more languages and includes the phenomena of bilingualism and plurilingualism in individuals, as well as societal multilingualism. According to Cenoz and Gorter (2010) there are between 4000 and 6000 languages spoken in approximately 200 political states, which supports the notion that multilingualism is the rule rather than the exception in contemporary society. Pointing out the complexity and diversity of the current, global multilingual arrangement, Aronin and Singleton (2010b) posit the organizational and explanatory value of the affordance perspective.

As societal multilingualism is widely acknowledged, individual multilingualism is regarded a desirable skill in culturally diverse, cosmopolitan societies. According to Otwinowska and De Angelis (2014a) multilingualism is generally considered as a positive phenomenon, because it positively effects cognitive development and aids the process of acquiring additional languages. Komorowsky (2010) contends that the modern world encourages linguistic diversity in support of democracy and economic development. An affordance perspective provides insights into current and future trends in multilingualism.

2.3.1 The diversity of multilingualism and redefining multilingualism

The diversity of multilingualism manifests within societal and individual multilingual arrangements. As a social phenomenon, multilingualism refers to a situation where several languages co-exist in a given region or territory. According to Aronin and Singleton (2010a)

the spread of multilingualism and the ever-increasing diversity of multilingualism are due to the effects of globalization and modern technological developments. Modern day lifestyle affords regular contact between people with different linguistic backgrounds. Maintaining that compelling societal language affordances select languages for the realization of individual language affordances, Aronin and Singleton conclude that societal multilingualism affords individual multilingualism.

Language nominations are time-space specific, indicating the value of languages within a particular community. Aronin and Singleton (2010a) propose that language nominations act as markers of diversity, providing insight into changing trends describing multilingualism in society and individuals. According to Aronin and Singleton language nominations indicate the function, social role and status of a language. Language nominations used in socio-political contexts include ethnic languages, official language, majority and minority languages, lingua franca, heritage language, migrant language, regional language or community language. Komorowsky explores the dynamic status of languages, including the emergence of new languages and the growth or disappearance of others. Advancing that language nominations are relevant only to a certain community within a political entity or state, Komorowsky (2010) explains that a minority language in one community could be the official or majority language in another. Aronin, ÓLaoire and Singleton (2011) maintain that the more language nominations used to refer to a language at local and global level, the more vital its socio-political role and status is.

In SLA research investigating language acquisition in the instructional context, language nominations, like first language, second language, third language or foreign language, are used describing different models of individual multilingualism. However, these and other traditional markers of diversity and identity, including ethnic group, mother tongue, native language or first language, have become fuzzy and complicated applied to multilingual practices. In multicultural, multilingual society and families, multilingual individuals may consider rather their current dominant language than the chronological order in which they acquired their languages, when asked what their first language is. The application for undergraduates for admission to studies in 2015 at the University of Cape Town investigated this issue asking students to describe their mother's first language (Application for undergraduate admission in 2015).

Describing individual multilingualism within such complex and diverse social multilingual dispensation requires a dynamic systems approach, regarding languages' development as continuous and interconnected (Larsen-Freeman, 2015). Aronin and Bawardi (2012) argue that the complexity and dynamic nature of contemporary multilingualism make it impossible to interpret it as the sum of its parts. Hammarberg (2010) identifies some factors that influence the state of individual multilinguals. These include simultaneous acquisition, alternating or intermittent acquisition, bonus languages, which are related or linguistically similar languages, the type of language knowledge, which could include literacy skills, metalinguistic knowledge, receptive knowledge only and cultural knowledge, and the level of proficiency. Hall, Cheng and Carlson (2006) refer to the complex, dynamic linguistic state of the multilingual individual as multicompetence, stating that there is no ideal, homogeneous, distinct native language system, but maintain that individuals' language knowledge varies. Thompson (2013) considers language aptitude as a dynamic concept which is related to previous and new language experience. Cenoz and Gorter (2010) also consider the typological distance between languages acquired, when explaining diversity in individual multilingualism. The typological relationship between languages are measured in terms of syntactic structure, phonology, lexical commonalities and pragmatic or cultural similarities. Cenoz and Gorter consider the formal or informal context for language acquisition, the sociolinguistic status of the target language(s) and the instructional setting as further factors impacting on the diversity in multilingualism. In the formal instructional context, schools often determine the number of languages offered, the age of introduction, the instructional time and instructional approach for additional language(s) learning. Considering all these factors impacting on the L2 learning process, Cenoz and Gorter maintain that the diversity of multilingualism renders comparison between L2 studies problematic.

Models describing different types of multilingualism reflect the complexity of the construct. Hornberger (2014) differentiates between chronological models and cognitive models. Chronological models describe L1, L2, L3 and L4 as the first, second, third and fourth languages learnt. However, Aronin and Bawardi (2012) point out the infinite possibilities for the individual multilingual, recognizing the simultaneous acquisition of any number of languages at any time within the chronological model, as well as considering cross-linguistic influences of all the languages of the multilingual. Alternatively, Hornberger advances cognitive models for describing individual multilingualism, distinguishing between native languages and non-native languages according to the age of onset. The cognitive model allows

for one or more native languages, acquired simultaneously or consecutively during early childhood, before a state of cognitive maturity. Nicholas and Lightbown (2008) argue that children begin to apply their understanding of what language is before the age of three, and, therefore, the child's second language acquisition process, commencing after this age, will be rendered fundamentally different from the first language(s) acquisition. Nicholas and Lightbown suggest a gradual cognitive development up to the age of seven, whereafter the process is similar to that of adults, and recognised as adult second language acquisition. This current study will consider any language acquired after the first language as a second language, however, acknowledging the acquisition of more than one first language simultaneously during infancy.

The permeability of modern societies, including socio-political communities, academic communities, social media communities and commercial communities, contribute to greater diversity and dynamic developments in contemporary social multilingualism. These communities produce multilingual individuals with diverse and dynamic linguistic competencies, transforming pedagogic practices accommodating diverse L2 learning needs and goals. Otwinowska and De Angelis (2014a) describe two key components for lifelong learning. The first is communication in the mother tongue(s), which constitute the ability to interact appropriately and creatively in a full range of societal and cultural contexts. The second is partial competencies in foreign languages, which results in communication that involves mediation and intercultural understanding. The primary concern for L2 teaching is to describe the goals and aims of L2 learning, so as to create language affordances accordingly.

2.3.2 Identification of affordances for multilingualism

Language affordances for multilingualism include social, external and internal individual language affordances that make the use and learning of more than one language possible. Aronin and Singleton (2012) identify the setting, the users and the language(s) as the main elements of multilingualism presenting diversity, maintaining that these elements interconnect and interact with each other creating individual language affordances for language acquisition and language use through the dynamic mutuality of identity and milieu. Cenoz and Gorter (2010) argue that the linguistic background of the learner, national and educational language policies and the sociolinguistic context present affordances for individual multilingualism.

Social language affordances can be identified at different levels within the multilingualism setting, including at global, national and local levels, but are always time-space specific (Aronin

and Singleton, 2010b). At global level, ideological shifts create goal affordances for multilingualism. The UNESCO international conference of 2008 in Tokyo, Japan, called on global affordances for multilingualism, and was entitled: Globalization and Languages: Building on our Rich Heritage (Globalization and Languages, Building on Our Rich Heritage, UNESCO Conference). At this conference, speakers addressed issues regarding economic and political developments that present happening social language affordances through widespread migration and global businesses. Aronin and Singleton (2010a) refer to *the compression and expansion of time and space*, discussing technological developments, especially in international transport and satellite and telecommunications media, causing the world to shrink and time to expand, as people are able to cross greater distances in less and less time. Probability affordances for multilingualism are created when people are brought in contact with different languages and cultures.

History and politics create sure-fire language affordances through oppressive language policies, such as is evident in many previous British, French, Spanish or Portuguese colonies across Africa, Canada, South America, the South Pacific and India. De Kadt (2005) considers the importance of ethnic identity with powerful political backing of the government in alliance with cultural organizations as essential in the creation of affordances for the development of the Afrikaans language between 1924 and 1994, in South Africa. South African history explains current language affordances for English and Afrikaans in this country (Heugh, Prinsloo, Makgamatha, Diedericks and Winnaar, 2017). These include physical and non-physical phenomena, such as buildings, dictionaries, literature, higher educational institutions, policies and ideologies. De Kadt argues that current multilingual language policies, which recognize ethnic languages in South Africa are competing with higher political agendas such as democracy, political unity and economic concerns. Instead, in multilingual political states, democracy may support linguistic diversity, creating goal affordances through language and language in education policies. Aronin and Singleton (2010b) regard language-related affordances for multilingualism provided by the state. These include official status of a language, provision of obligatory teaching in two or more languages, geographical unity across different linguistic borders, creation of shared public institutions and mobility of the economy.

At local level, social attitudes, school policies and educators provide affordances for multilingualism. The availability and training of language teachers, as well as a school curriculum providing additional language subject teaching, assigning adequate instructional time, are essential social affordances for multilingualism, at local level. Cenoz and Gorter

(2010) argue that language planning and multilingualism in schools are related to attitudes and discourses in society. They state that the relationship between school practices and practices in the community is bidirectional, with local attitudes presenting happening affordances for multilingualism. Language nominations also reflect attitude and teaching approaches towards the target language. According to Aronin, ÓLaoire and Singleton (2011), language nominations are important markers of diversity, which perform a reflective function by indicating a specific society's current attitude towards a language, as well as the status or role of the language in a certain time-space. They explain that language nominations have emotional and functional connotations, reflecting the political and social status of the language. Aronin, ÓLaoire and Singleton propose a measuring or rating scale for language nominations at social level, where the more nominations used globally and locally to refer to a language, the greater the status and role of the language. At individual level, Aronin, ÓLaoire and Singleton propose an emotional-identity scale where a *heritage* or *home language* is considered close, while *lingua franca* or *foreign language* is distant. Aronin, ÓLaoire and Singleton (2011) posit that *additional language* is a neutral term implying that multilingualism is a common phenomenon, in a society where many language are given approximately equal status.

Individual language affordances are more difficult to identify than social language affordances, especially internal language affordances, like previous language experience and motivation. The difference between different languages' properties are explained as typological differences, with input presenting typologically closer languages considered an external individual language affordance for multilingualism. The typological distance is measured in terms of the learner's background languages, proficiency in these languages and the target language with regard to the learner's learning needs and goals. (See section 3.3.3 for a discussion of cross-linguistic influence.) Aronin and Singleton (2012) argue that affordances for multilingualism are specific for each individual user. They maintain that language learners must be actively involved in the acquisition process by self-monitoring, self-observation and regular reflection on learning aims.

The identification of language affordances facilitating multilingualism considers different levels of society, history, the properties of languages and the needs and goals of the users. Current global and local affordances for multilingualism are identified and classified in terms of categories and subcategories of language affordances.

2.3.3 Perceiving and effectuating affordances for multilingualism

Gibson's classic theory of affordances holds that perceiving and effectuating affordances depend on three conditions: the availability of affordances in the environment, the properties and processing mechanisms of the individual and the needs of the individual. Aronin and Singleton (2012) emphasize the importance of metalinguistic awareness allowing learners to perceive language affordances, maintaining information about the self must be accompanied by information about the environment.

Social language affordances lead to the creation and effectuation of individual language affordances (Aronin and Singleton, 2012). Housen, Schoonjans, Janssens, Welcomme, Schoonheere and Pierrard, (2011) state that the contextual dimension is essential for understanding how opportunities for learning is created and how learners might respond to these opportunities. They emphasize the great variation between and within contexts, and describe three dimensions in the instructed L2 learning context within which this diversity manifests: the learner's individual level (e.g. needs and abilities), the educational or curricular context, which is also shaped by the educational policy, and the extra-curricular context (e.g. the institution and sociolinguistic conditions). Graves (2008) also considers the diversity in language learning processes based on context, distinguishing between target language-embedded and target language-removed contexts. Otwinowska and De Angelis (2014a) identify five different models for L2 acquisition. The dominant L2/L3 setting applies mostly to migrants who learn an additional language in a target language-embedded context and may result in subtractive multilingualism, i.e. attrition of native language competence. The minority L2 setting applies to speakers of the dominant language learning a minority language in a target language-removed context. The external setting applies to speakers of the dominant language who learn a foreign language or lingua franca. When languages have similar status, and are used in similar domains, it is referred to as a co-existing L2 setting. The incremental introduction of isiXhosa as a second additional language with Afrikaans and English as the other additional language and the home language in Eastern Cape primary schools is an example of the co-existing L2 setting. The institutional L2 setting is where the L2 is widely used in certain domains and institutions, but for most of the population it is an additional language. The learning of English for non-English speaking learners in the Eastern Cape could be considered an institutional L2 setting. According to Otwinowska and De Angelis the last three settings provide social language affordances and will result in additive multilingualism if individuals are motivated and their attitudes are positive.

Numerous studies have illustrated that multilingual individuals' superior language and metalinguistic knowledge impact on their language processing mechanisms, assisting them in acquiring an additional language (Barac and Bialystok, 2011, Cenoz, 2013, Hall, Cheng and Carlson, 2006, Jessner, 2008, Thompson, 2013). Specifically, what is of interest to researchers is what part of the target language (TL) input is converted into intake and what processes are involved. Rast (2010) advances perceiving, comprehending, parsing and producing as some of the processes involved. Aronin and Singleton (2012) refer to a study by Marx (2007) indicating greater receptive skills available to language learners, where the target language is linguistically close to the L1. Tsang (2014) investigated multilinguals' ability to perceive similarities and differences between languages, and concluded that participants with three or more languages were perceiving more than learners with only one foreign language. Typological distance and cross-linguistic experience, as well as proficiency level and metalinguistic knowledge were identified as related affordances. With reference to Gibson and Hofsissen's (2011) study on the perception of preposition errors, Tsang (2014) argues that more experienced multilinguals perceived more accurately, but are also more tolerant towards the severity of errors. Dewaele's (2010) study also recognises typological closeness in languages as an affordance for L2 learning. He used the notion of affordances for investigating complex computations in the language learner's mind. Though, Rast (2010) argues that psychotypology is more relevant than typology as a language affordance, because the latter is based on contrastive analysis, whereas the former is evident in learners' performances reflecting what the learners perceive.

A single affordance might not be perceived or effectuated if the action-goal relationship is not obvious (Aronin and Singleton, 2012). In other words, affordances available to the multilingual individual may not be perceived, if they are not recognized as useful. Aronin and Singleton (2012) advance that a set of affordances, instead of a single affordance, is more likely to permit the performance of a given action achieving a given goal. In other words, a set of complementary affordances may create a need, focus attention and support a preferred action, making perceiving and effectuating language affordances most likely. Studies in multilingualism have supported this view indicating that the linguistic landscape of a community (Cenoz and Gorter, 2008), foreign language learning skills (Haenni, Heinzmann, Müller, Oliviera, Wicki and Werlen, 2011), language awareness (Corcoll, 2013) and syntactic and lexical transfer (Pfenninger, 2014, Lindgren and Muñoz, 2014) are affordances available to multilingual language learners. However, the studies also describe demographic, affective

and contextual factors that contribute, as well as indicating required levels of language proficiency for the effectuation of these language affordances.

In summary, an affordance perspective provides insight into the dynamic occurrence and the complex nature of societal, as well as individual multilingualism, with categories and scales applied at different levels indicating the scope and focus of the investigation. The use and acquisition of specific languages are made possible by contextual, as well as individual factors. Affordances for language learning are available to multilingual societies and individuals, however, the effectuation of these affordances depends on multiple factors contributing to a set of positive affordances, which are more conducive for the learning of a specific language, by a particular user, in a certain setting.

2.4 LANGUAGE POLICY AND THE AFFORDANCES THEORY

Language and language-in-education policies are regarded as social affordances for multilingualism and language learning. Contending that national multilingual education policy opens up ideological spaces for implementing multilingual education, Hornberger (2009) maintains the importance of multilingual education for the peaceful coexistence of people, as well as for empowering historically oppressed sociocultural groups. The growing recognition of the existence and the rights of multilingual communities has become an affordance for instituting language and educational policies that protect and promote linguistic diversity.

Research indicates several countries with multilingual language policies in place that are more or less successful in terms of the expected outcomes of language policies in government, public and education sectors (Adamson and Davidson, 2003, Baldauf, Kaplan, Kamwangamalu and Bryant, 2001, Costa and Lambert, 2017, Lanvers, 2011, Menken, 2006 and Wildsmith, 2013). Cassels Johnson (2013) maintain that language policy is a process with multiple layers and agents impacting the function, use and acquisition of language within society. Acknowledging the interdependent and independent functioning of agents and layers involved in language policy process, Hornberger (2009) argues that top-down policy is not enough, as any policy may fail if there are not bottom-up, local support. An affordances theory has explanatory value in reference to the identification and the effectuation of affordances for language policies, supporting second language acquisition.

2.4.1 Identification of language policy affordances and language affordances in language policy

Language affordances exist and manifest differently in the multiple layers involved in the language policy process, from national government to school and individual level, presenting a relationship between the status of a language and its purpose and value for the language users or learners. Cassels Johnson (2013) discusses the views of Mc Carty (2011) and Spolsky (2004) maintaining that language policy results from existing language practices and beliefs engendering interaction and negotiation amongst different stake holders. Cassels Johnson further maintains that linguistic diversity, language contact and interaction are affordances for language policy and planning. Kennedy and Tomlinson (2013) point out that there are often inconsistencies between policy and planning due to the differences in goals of the agents who are charged at micro-level to implement language policies.

Language policy affordances are perceived in accordance with the need of the observer, whether to influence language behaviour of a speech community, to determine access to educational and economic resources, or maintain cultural identity (Cassels Johnson, 2013). Kennedy and Tomlinson (2013) describe language policy as a statement of intent, typically authorized at government level, and aiming at influencing an individual's or group's future language behaviours. Discussing Kaplan and Baldauf's (2003) views on language planning and policy, Liddicoat (2013) maintains that language planning is necessary prior to policy formulation, as well as for organizing specific activities during policy implementation. Liddicoat further distinguishes between policy as text and policy as discourse. Language policy as text presents goal affordances, but, where text and context meet, policy as discourse presents happening affordances for policy implementation, manifesting in accordance with individual interpretations of each reader. Referring to Schiffman's (1996) explanation of language policy as a social and a cultural construct, Cassels Johnson (2013) maintains that language policy is grounded in linguistic culture afforded by society's beliefs and attitude towards language. Cassels Johnson further maintains that when different languages come into contact with each other, linguistic change is observed as languages affect each other. Cassels Johnson (2013) considers the views of Wiley (2002) and Ruiz (1984) regarding policy orientation, including promotion orientation, tolerance orientation, language-as-right and language-as-resource. Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) include language revival, language spread, language maintenance, lexical modernization, terminological unification and language purification as some of the goals of language planning. Liddicoat points out that language-in-education planning and policy are

often involved in other areas of language planning, by means of activities regarding literacy development and additional language acquisition.

Language-in-education policies are goal affordances for language use and learning, while the implementation of language-in-education policy and planning present happening affordances that are perceived as positive language affordances when they match the needs of local communities. According to Kennedy and Tomlinson (2013) language-in-education planning includes decisions about which language to use within educational institutions, at primary and/or secondary and/or tertiary level, as curriculum subjects and/or medium of instruction, the amount of time to be spent on language instructions, which teaching or learning approaches to follow and the design of syllabi, methods, materials and assessment. Baldauf, Kaplan, Kamwangamalu and Bryant (2011) describe different language-in-education policy types, including access policy, which describes the age of introduction, economic policy and resourcing policy that fund programmes, personnel policy, which relates to teacher training, evaluation policy gauging the success of policy implementation and community policy, which represents the parent-driven demands. They argue that the failure of some government initiated policies in Asia can be explained by different policies for different schools (private or public schools), insufficient funding and lack of support from government and/or local communities. Baldauf, Kaplan, Kamwangamalu and Bryant maintain that all language-in-education policy types must be coordinated throughout all levels of implementation.

Language policy and planning function at different levels, illustrating the construct of nesting in affordances theory (Aronin and Singleton, 2012). Kennedy and Tomlinson (2013) describe macro level and micro level planning. Examples of agents at macro level are national governments and international unions or councils like the European Union. For instance, the European Council and European Union promote the teaching of two foreign languages in the school system, while supporting education in regional and ethnic minority languages (Komorowska, 2010). Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) also posit meso level language planning, including local governments and pressure groups. The efforts of the Afrikaanse Taal en Kultuur Vereniging in South Africa creating affordances for the development of Afrikaans is an example of language policy functioning at meso level. Micro level include language policies of political parties, factories, schools and local communities. Menken (2006) describes how educational and language policies at macro level led to change in language policies at micro level. She states that the federal No Child Left Behind legislation in the United States of America aimed at promoting accountability through standardized tests to ensure that learners

progress according to legislation while implicating the allocation of federal funds for local schools. Menken maintains that New York schools' language policies changed to teach to the test in order to prepare learners for the state's standardized tests. Menken states that such classroom practices have a negative influence on the progress of non-mother tongue language learners. Language policies at macro level that are results driven manifest as negative affordances for language learning policies at micro level. Explaining washback as the extent to which assessment and tests influence classroom practices, Bailey and Masuhara (2013) maintain that language policies may result in positive or negative washback. They advance that an oral component in tests, test preparation materials and workshops for teachers, scoring criteria for learners in oral and written tests and test reports that include information about how to improve language proficiency are examples of positive washback promoting language learning. Positive washback is considered an affordance for L2 learning.

To identify affordances, the needs and goals of the individual or organization are considered. Baldauf and Kaplan (1997) distinguish between top-down and bottom up policy and planning. Top-down policy and planning reflect the needs and interests of the agents of authority. These are primarily economic and political goals and needs. Bottom-up policy and planning consider and consult the needs of the target group or individuals. According to Kennedy and Tomlinson (2013) the most common approach to language policy and planning functions from top to bottom and from macro to micro levels. However, they point out the advantages of backward-mapping over top-down approaches to planning. Kennedy and Tomlinson describe backward-mapping as starting with micro level and moving to macro level by considering the local context and the realities of implementation. Backward-mapping is viewed as a positive affordance for language policy that promotes multilingualism effectively. Adamson and Davidson (2003) describe the aims of the Target Orientated Curriculum in Hong Kong, manifested in the policy documents, as meeting the communicative needs of individual students. Yet, they maintain that the students and parents in their study were driven by pragmatic needs, concerning academic advancement and promotion policies. A bottom-up policy approach considers the context with its cultural expectations and its resources for implementation, while continuously monitoring policy outcomes, re-evaluating language policies and planning.

Positive affordances for language policy and planning in one language may be perceived as negative affordances for other languages. The ecology of languages in society is sensitive, and the growth of one language relates to the attrition of others, because different languages sharing an environment compete for available affordances, including financial resources and priority in

limited instructional time. Komorowska (2010) states that languages vary in status, and the status of languages are dynamic. Baldauf and Kaplan (1997) explain the notion of register as the function that a language fulfil in society. They state that in a multilingual society languages compete for registers and power. Baldauf and Kaplan posit that language survival depends on its use, function and status in a community, and the language which accommodates the most registers are perceived to be the most powerful. According to Aronin and Singleton (2012) official languages enjoy legal provisions which constitute language affordances. However, Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) advance that languages receive official status for political reasons, and not for reasons of their actual usage. Language policies that maintain and develop ethnic languages in order to cope with modern needs and registers in society are positive affordances for language status. Komorowska contends that at-risk languages can be protected through a coherent language policy and through education. A variety of language policies and language in education policies are required to create a domain that affords the vitality and use of a language in a society. Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) describe language as a portable tool, skill or artefact with economic value. This view supports the notion that multilingualism is a national resource that is managed and controlled by governments through language policy. Cenoz and Gorter (2010) introduce the notion of sustainable development as maintaining a balance between the environment, natural resources and economic growth. They maintain that through effective language acquisition programmes, schools are able to contribute to the sustainable development of society by educating more multilingual and multicultural citizens. Then again, language planning is costly and the process of changing human language is extensive. Therefore, Cenoz and Gorter advance that it is essential to ensure continuity in language policies.

Summarizing this section, language contact, perceived by societies recognizing language diversity as a national and individual resource, results in interaction and negotiation, constituting positive affordances for language policy and planning. Language policy and language-in-education policies are considered affordances for language use and learning. Significantly, language policy functions at different levels. An affordances theory, describing the phenomenon of nesting as micro contexts manifesting separate affordances, yet remaining nested in and related to the macro context, recognizes the importance of coordinating language policy and implementation throughout all levels. In order for the language policy affordances to be perceived, the needs of individuals and implementation realities at micro level have to be addressed and re-assessed continually. On the other hand, the ecology of languages must be

considered at macro level, managing linguistic diversity and sustainable language planning and policies, affording societal and individual multilingualism. When different types of language and education policies are coordinated, it is considered a positive affordance for language learning and multilingualism.

2.4.2 Perception, effectuation and creation of language policy affordances

Perception and effectuation of language policy affordances are observed in language use and language learning practices. In this section a number of studies investigating language policy and planning processes and their implementation outcomes are analyzed, generally pointing towards a mismatch of governments and other agents' aims with regard to the needs and beliefs of target communities.

Baldauf, Kaplan, Kamwangamalu and Bryant (2011) analysed Asian language education policies. They argue that at macro level, international economic competitiveness, and at micro level, educational goals and desired L2 social identities are positive affordances for language policies. According to Baldauf, Kaplan, Kamwangamalu and Bryant, policy-makers struggle to manage policy outcomes, because local individuals' needs and choices are variable, yet most influential. They compare examples of Bangladesh and Nepal, where foreign language policies are resisted due to individuals' needs and goals for protecting a national language, with Taiwan, where on the other hand, the right to education in minority mother tongue languages is rejected in favour of the perceived social power of English.

Adamson and Davidson's (2003) study describes the educational reform and policy implementation in Hong Kong as top-down and system-led. The Curriculum Development Council introduced educational principles and processes, used in Australia and the United Kingdom, supporting experiential learning through tasks that afford whole-person development, and promoting learner autonomy in language acquisition. Adamson and Davidson demonstrate how language policy was reinterpreted at every level by the various stake holders to accommodate the culturally specific local needs. They argue that language policies should be contextualized in local experiences and educational realities. Adamson and Davidson point out the importance of monitoring, evaluating and supporting the entire policy implementation process.

Menken (2006) analyzed how government policy created educational affordances for English language learners in the United States of America. Instead, they conclude that standardized tests and high stake consequences led to reduced quality education for non-mother tongue

English language learners. Menken maintains the risks of a one size fits all educational reform. She further maintains that school language policies must be planned and decided upon by educators and school administrators, together with community members, so as to meet the individual needs of the students.

According to Lanvers (2011), the United Kingdom and the United States share the paradox of multilingualism and monolingualism of societies with many minority ethnic languages being spoken, while many citizens have poor or no knowledge of any other language than English. She distinguishes between passive and active language policies in reference to actual take up in practice. Lanvers maintains that language policy must be investigated within socio-political and economic contexts to reveal the true political and ideological goals. According to Lanvers (2011) language policies in England determine that L2 learning is only compulsory between the ages of 11 and 14 in public schools, while modern foreign languages are encouraged at all school levels, and exams may be taken in any number of community languages. However, Lanvers posits that a lack of cohesion, coordination and forward planning result in few active affordances for L2 learning, while prevailing attitudes result in mere passive language policies. The demotivating effect of global English on learners in England is a negative affordance for multilingualism. Lanvers advances the status of world languages, extracurricular exposure to community languages, and extended, continued language programmes with high stake consequences as positive affordances for the effectuation of affordances for active language policies.

Costa and Lambert (2009) analyze multilingual language policy implementation in France. They describe how language policy in France has changed according to the European Union's multilingual recommendations and its repercussions for local education policies. Costa and Lambert state that plurilingualism is valued in the education, and all learners are required to study at least two foreign languages. Yet, they maintain that schools reproduce dominant ideologies. They describe a founding ideological principle, supporting the importance of language for the French nation, backed by historical factors, resulting in a belief that linguistic diversity is unnecessary rather than an asset. Costa and Lambert further maintain that the recognition of regional languages are only symbolic and abstract. They posit that the beliefs and attitudes governing the way regional minority languages were treated in the past, currently, continue to determine the way languages of immigrants are treated. Local language nominations, including rare language or regional minority languages, reveal societies' attitudes. Costa and Lambert argue that different segments of the French society have conflicting needs

and demands. They maintain that despite the fact that a number of languages are present in the educational system, the current system is not coping effectively with foreign language teaching and an all-French approach is still dominant.

The development of African languages in accordance to their official language status in South Africa has been the topic of much research and speculation (Heugh, 2013, Heugh, Prinsloo, Makgamatha, Diedericks and Winnaar, 2017, Leerders moet nuwe taal leer, 2012, Murray, 2012, Plüddermann, Braam, Broeder, Extra and October, 2004, Schools face problem, 2013, Somhlahlo, 2009, Turner, 2012, Wildsmith, 2013). According to Wildsmith (2013), language policies afford powerful initiatives for the development of African Languages in primary and tertiary educational institutions in South Africa. In the Foundation Phase (age 6 to 9) the incremental introduction of African languages for all learners and the teaching of African languages as additional languages in the Intermediate Phase (age 10 to 12) are happening affordances. However, Heugh (2013) maintains that multilingual language policy affordances are not effectuated due to a disconnection between language education policy and curriculum policy documents. Wildsmith's (2013) study identifies many negative affordances for language policy, hindering the effectuation of positive affordances, including language attitudes, dearth in materials across the curricula at all levels of education and the need for the standardization of African languages that is based on contemporary corpora. According to Wildsmith, parents and learners prefer English as the LoLT for instrumental-economical and historical-political reasons. This view is supported by Plüddermann, Braam, Broeder, Extra and October's (2004) findings. At higher education institutions, the development of a language plan and policy to implement multilingualism is required, as well as the promotion of the African language of the region. However, Somhlahlo's (2009) study indicates language attitudes amongst students as a negative affordance for the academic development of isiXhosa, also maintaining that inappropriate isiXhosa curricula and a lack of teaching and learning resources are some of the reasons cited, dispelling confidence amongst university students.

Donitsa-Schmidt, Inbar and Shohamy (2004) investigated the effect of teaching spoken Arabic in Israel. According to Donitsa-Schmidt, Inbar and Shohamy, Arabic is the second official language of Israel and the teaching of Arabic as a second language in Israeli Jewish schools is stressed as very important in the educational language policy of Israel. Arabic is considered a heritage language for a large number of Israeli Jews who immigrated to Israel from Arabic speaking countries. Donitsa-Schmidt, Inbar and Shohamy state that it is compulsory to learn Arabic for three years (Grades 7-9), but despite efforts from the Ministry of Education to

promote the teaching of Arabic, Arabic L2 learning is characterized by negative attitudes and low motivation. They also state that Modern Literary Arabic is taught in Israeli schools, though Arabic is a diglossic language with a clear morphologic and syntactic variation between the literary and the spoken forms. In their study Donitsa-Schmidt, Inbar and Shohamy investigated the effects of teaching spoken Arabic to young learners (Grades 4-6). They found that changing the educational context in which the second language is taught, in terms of the starting age and choice of language variety, resulted in positive changes in learners' motivation and attitude towards the target language.

In summary, multilingual language policy is considered an affordance for linguistic diversity. However, language policy and planning must consider local cultures and the context of learning, appropriating language policy affordances with regard to perceiving and effectuation of language affordances. Affordances will not be perceived unless the target population's needs and goals are addressed. The uptake or effectuation of language policies depends on the target population and their mechanisms of processing, which are tainted with society's ideologies, cultural beliefs and attitudes that are cultivated through history and social propaganda. Language policy and language-in-education policies are goal affordances affording language(s) status, but language access and function in society are happening affordances relating to learning needs and goals. Perceiving and effectuating happening language policy affordances further rely on the continuity and coordination of supportive language education policies throughout the process of implementation, representing a set of positive language affordances.

2.5 THE AFFORDANCES THEORY FOR LANGUAGE CURRICULUM DESIGN

An affordances theory for language curriculum design analyzes different approaches to curriculum design, describing language affordances substantiating language learning and teaching practices. A language curriculum, in the most general terms, refers to a programme of language study. According to Nunan (2004:4), Tyler (1949) proposed a rational curriculum model, which included three components: the syllabus, methodology, as well as assessment and evaluation. Richards (2012) describes the language curriculum as the input, process and output for a language teaching programme. A language curriculum includes general or more specific principles and aims for the teaching approach, the content and grading thereof, learning and teaching support materials, planning and teaching strategies and assessment procedures of language learning (Nunan, 2004).

Richards (2012) proposes three curriculum design approaches for the development and implementation of language teaching programmes. In his discussion of forward, central and backwards language curriculum approaches, Richards describes different approaches to language learning and teaching implicated in each of these design approaches. Forward design starts with the syllabus, then moves to methodology and ends with the expected language outcomes. A forward design approach represents the more conventional curriculum design practices, which start by selecting the input or subject matter, including the topics and skills or linguistic content, followed by decisions regarding the grading and sequencing thereof. Richards maintains that in practice most teachers start by planning the actual classroom activities. This approach is what Richards refers to as central design, which starts by specifying the kind of learning activities, teaching procedures and techniques, considering the teacher's resources. The central approach to curriculum design is primarily concerned with the beliefs and theories regarding the nature of language and language learning, asking first how and then what. Richards argues that the central design approach is learner-focused and learning orientated. With this approach, the type of input and possible outcomes rely on the individual learners and the particular context. The third approach to curriculum design discussed by Richards is backward design. This kind of curriculum design firstly specifies the desired outcomes or objectives for language teaching, followed by decisions regarding the methods and linguistic content needed to achieve the required outcomes.

An affordances theory supports a learner's needs analysis informing corresponding objectives or goals for the language teaching programme, allowing the perceiving of language affordances. Spiro (2013) describes three categories of learners' linguistic and communicative needs that were originally suggested by Hutchinson and Waters (1987). These include necessities, which are essential communicative needs for specific purposes, lacks representing the gap between learners' current level of communicative competence and the required level and wants, which describe general social linguistic skills. Addressing these needs by specifying learning and teaching content is problematic, considering the diversity of abilities and competencies of the target learner population, as well as the dynamic nature of language affordances. Instead, methodology, responding to all three of the categories of needs, interpreted as learning needs, is a more viable option. Methodology that answers in the learning needs of young beginner language learners are discussed in the following section, supporting a central approach to curriculum design.

In summary, the language curriculum shapes the teaching and learning environment furnishing language affordances. Language curriculum design, integrating SLA research findings regarding L2 learning processes, carefully considering and incorporating the particular needs of the target language learners in relation to these processes, as well as to the specific language's properties, presents a set of goal affordances most conducive to L2 learning.

2.5.1 Identification of language affordances in language curriculum design

The affordances theory for curriculum design analyzes the needs and goals of the language learners, in order to identify affordances that are most likely to be perceived by them. A task-based approach has been advanced as compatible with many of the needs of young, second language learners (Ellis, 2003, Ghosn, 2013, Hughs, 2010, Nunan, 2004, Philp and Duchesne, 2008, Pinter, 2007, Shak and Gardner, 2008, Willis and Willis, 2007). The dynamic nature of language affordances, corresponding to language development and the changing needs of language learners, regards the language syllabus for the grading and sequencing of the content through methodology. This dynamic dimension in language curriculum design further informs learning assessment procedures, presenting language affordances.

Task-based curriculum design, using tasks as the basic units of analysis, is process-driven, focusing on teaching methodology that is learning orientated and learner-centered (Ellis and Shintani, 2014, Richards, 2012). According to Richards, backward curriculum design starts with a needs analysis and then identifies teaching objectives based on the learners' needs. These are communicative and linguistic needs, stating objectives in terms of knowledge or skills, asking what the learners must know or be able to do with language. However, the learners' needs and goals supported by the affordances theory are the immediate, experiential needs of an individual within a specific time-space (Aronin and Singleton, 2012, Gibson, 1977). Nunan (2004) argues that experiential learning is an important conceptual basis for task-based language teaching. According to Nunan, experiential learning takes the learner's immediate personal experience as the point of departure for the learning experience. He points out that task-based learning embraces a holistic view of learning, is process orientated and promotes intrinsic motivation. The affordances theory focusses on the learning environment and perceivable actions. (See section 2.2.5 for a statement of the three principles implicated by this perspective.) Such a view considers the *process* as creating affordances, and the needs of learners are addressed through teaching methodology. The affordances theory applied to L2

learning, linking learners' immediate needs and goals directly to the perceiving and effectuation of environmental affordances, supports a central approach to curriculum design.

A central approach to curriculum design focuses on learning and teaching activities that satisfy learners' dynamic learning needs. Spiro (2013) compares the language learning needs of young and older learners. Older learners have greater cognitive understanding and metacognitive knowledge. Older learners have experience and knowledge of social and cultural conventions. Experienced learners apply this explicit knowledge regarding language and language use, while continually searching for similarities and differences between their L1 and the TL. Spiro does not support explicit grammar teaching, because she states that language development is not linear, nor is it predictable. Maintaining that language development is irregular with variation between learners and variation within a learner's progress, Spiro asserts that a fixed language syllabus is unlikely to match the developmental cycles of the learners. However, Spiro further maintains that the accurate use of grammar makes meanings clearer, when production expresses distance from the here and now, or when using hypothetical language. Accurate use of grammar is also important for effectively expressing social distance, including formality, politeness and authority. Ellis and Shintani (2014) support such uses of explicit knowledge and further argue its value, maintaining that learners can draw on previously acquired explicit knowledge when their language development is able to process it. On the other hand, Spiro (2013) describes young learners' learning needs, including learning implicitly, without needing technical explanations of language forms, having primary desires for playing and communicating and belonging to a peer group. Concrete, physical tasks, relating to the here-and-now context and familiar concepts, are advanced as constituting a set of external individual language affordances for young beginner language learners (see section 2.2.4.1). Philp and Duchesne (2008) maintain that young learners' social and linguistic goals are inextricably linked. Dimroth (2008) supports this notion, explaining that social and linguistic assimilation is due to the process of identity construction, facilitating intrinsic motivation in young learners, whereas older learners rely more on instrumental motivation in language learning. A central design approach to curriculum design considers learners' needs in terms of motivating activities, creating affordances for participation and meaning making (Richards, 2012). Describing general language ability as a language learning goal compatible with a central curriculum design approach, Richards argues that this makes the central design approach appropriate for young L2 learners.

A language curriculum design specifies the teaching objectives, the grading and the sequencing of learning contents for the language syllabus and the learning assessment (Nunan, 2004). Nunan maintains that tasks are used as the units of analysis for a task-based syllabus, with different task types constituting the learning content expressed as activities. In section 2.2.4.1, tasks requiring information exchange and promoting general cognitive development, with topics that reflect the world of the child, were identified as external individual affordances. Situational interest is considered an internal individual affordance for young learners. Tasks that present competition, novelty and high activity, while stimulating curiosity and encouraging engagement are associated with situational interest (see section 2.2.4.2). The application of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis to a task-based syllabus allows for classifying, grading and sequencing tasks according to task variables, signifying measures of complexity (Robinson, 2011). In sections 5.3 and 5.5 research on task design and task-based syllabus design are analyzed supporting this view. A task-based syllabus for young beginner L2 learners is analyzed in terms of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis, with reference to isiXhosa target communicative tasks, in chapter 6. Robinson (2010) maintains that learners in any domain involving complex cognitive processing progress differently, relying on instruction that scaffolds learning, facilitating progress and the experience of success, when a complementary match between the learner's abilities, interests, motivations and task demands is achieved. The affordances theory applied to curriculum design, including language learning assessment, considers actions as evidence of the uptake of affordances in the environment. Richards (2012) distinguishes between achievement testing, which is tests of learning, and assessment *for* learning, where teaching and assessment inform each other. According to Richards, current trends in language curriculum design move away from testing knowledge, towards the testing of performance. In section 6.10 assessment tasks and dynamic assessment in terms of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis and SSARC model are explored, applying the affordances theory to dynamic performance assessment (Robinson, 2010).

In summary, a task-based L2 teaching approach and methodology, presenting the starting point for curriculum design, are identified as affordances for L2 learning. Young learners' immediate experiential needs, affording implicit learning, are recognized and prioritized within the learning process, supporting a central language curriculum design approach. Task-based research and theory identifying the type of activities, the grading of content in terms of task variables, and the sequencing of activities with regard to complexity, support the affordances theory in curriculum design for young learners. The affordances theory advances task-based

performance assessment as the observation and evaluation of the uptake of language affordances, indicating learner abilities, manifested as communicative actions.

2.5.2 Implementation, effectuation and creation of language affordances in curriculum design

The language curriculum design is investigated for language affordances in approach, methodology, syllabus and assessment. With reference to Richards' (2012) forward, central and backward approach models to curriculum design, positive and negative language affordances emerge from the literature investigating pedagogic practices implementing these distinct approach models. A central approach, regarding the type of classroom activity or task as paramount, is advanced and discussed with reference to task-based language syllabus design, furnishing language affordances. A domain for the use and acquisition of a language is created by introducing a set of positive external and internal individual language affordances through task-based curriculum design and implementation, consolidating diverse theoretical perspectives in SLA and multilingualism literature with pedagogic practice. Affordances within the methodology and task content, materials and assessment can only be effectuated if they are perceived, relying on a match of the language learner's interests, needs, goals and abilities, presenting an action-goal relationship (Aronin and Singleton, 2012).

Task-based syllabi can be accommodated within diverse curriculum design approaches, including a forward design approach involving a needs analysis and top-down implementation process (Richards, 2012). Adamson and Davidson's study (2003) of educational reform in Hong Kong explores forward design in curriculum decision-making and implementation. Richards (2012) refers to forward design as the specialists approach. Adamson and Davidson describe the top-down approach where the principles and aims of the curriculum were reinterpreted by the various stakeholders, namely the policy-makers, materials designers, teachers, learners and their parents. Each of these stakeholders perceived affordances according to their individual needs and goals. Since the focus of the curriculum implementation was the learning outcomes, expressed as targets, instead of learning as a function of activity or methodology, this forward design process resulted in a hybrid task-based curriculum that is incompatible with the underlying methodological principles and theories of the intended task-based approach.

A backward approach to curriculum design, focusing on learning programme's outcomes that do not represent learners' needs and goals, is a negative language affordance. Menken's (2006) investigation of the City of New York's No Child Left Behind legislation illustrates a backward

approach within the curriculum implementation. Menken states that the English second language curriculum is very similar to the English language arts curriculum for native speakers, presenting a strong literary component instead of focusing on communicative competence. Menken maintains that the pressures of standardized tests contributed to a primary concern with learning outcomes, resulting in curricula being aligned to tests. Pointing out the dangers of washback, Menken maintains that such methodology, which teaches to the test, does not accommodate learners' individual learning needs and, therefore, is not considered to be in the best interest of language development and acquisition. Supporting this view, Bailey and Masuhara (2013) describe how classroom pedagogy and materials development are influenced by high-stakes language tests, presenting negative language affordances. With a backward design, the predetermined standard levels of achievement constitute the goals of language teaching, and affordances are perceived accordingly. On the other hand, Bailey and Masuhara posit that positive washback results from assessment procedures that are aligned with instructional goals and activities. Ellis (2003) points out that validity is essential in task-based testing, requiring multiple assessment tasks that represent the TL domain which was constructed during task-based lessons. See section 5.4.3 for a further discussion of validity in task-based assessment.

A central approach to curriculum design can be illustrated in a task-based syllabus, where the teaching is primarily concerned with methodological principles, creating language affordances through task as a process. Ellis and Shintani (2014) refer to Nunan's (1989) views of the task-based syllabus, and argue that task-based teaching shifts the focus from the outcomes of teaching to the process. Ellis and Shintani further support Kumaravadivelu's (1993) opinion that methodology is the central principle in TBLT. According to Ellis and Shintani (2014), task-based language teaching methodology is learner-driven, focusing on learner engagement and participation in communication. TBLT methodology engages the whole learner in communicative tasks, supporting general cognitive development and physical participation, as learners learn by doing. A task-based syllabus recycles language input, creating maximum opportunities for effectuation of affordances which match the learner's processing mechanisms, resulting in uptake and language development (Ellis, 2003).

Task-based curriculum design presents a set of goal affordances, but a task-based approach in curriculum implementation manifests happening affordances. Nunan (2004) separates the curriculum as a plan from the curriculum as an action and an outcome. He points out that the plan is drawn up prior to instruction, whereas the actions and outcomes result from the actual

teaching and learning activities. The curriculum as a plan can be considered as a goal affordance, whereas the curriculum as an action and an outcome manifest happening affordances. Ellis and Shintani (2014) examine Nunan's (1989) view claiming that the syllabus and the methodology are merged within a task-based curriculum. However, Ellis and Shintani, with reference to Skehan's (1996) distinction between design and implementation, argue that the implementation of tasks allows for variation in classroom and lesson organization, while the design of tasks is presented in the syllabus. According to Ellis and Shintani (2014), the implementation of a task-based syllabus considers the lesson design, the interactional variables and the roles of the learners and the teacher. In section 5.4.1 task-based methodology is discussed further with reference to these three components. A task-based approach in syllabus implementation, promoting meaningful interaction through communicative tasks, establishes a set of positive language affordances. The task-based approach is explored in chapter 5.

A set of positive language affordances are more likely to be perceived and effectuated than a single language affordance. In section 2.2.4.1 and 2.2.4.2 internal and external individual language affordances for young L2 learners were explored. Interaction, including negotiation, modified input and feedback, was identified as an external individual language affordance. Peer interaction and smaller group work are external individual language affordances, nesting internal individual language affordance, including motivation, interest and willingness to communicate, while simultaneously reducing language anxiety levels (Ellis, 2012). On the other hand, Philp and Duchesne (2008) maintain that interaction with an adult affords focus on form through feedback, scaffolding and metalinguistic clues. Explicit focus on form is an external individual language affordance for learners with developing cognitive abilities and literacy skills. Ellis (2012) suggests conscious-raising activities for introducing explicit metalinguistic knowledge through meaningful, engaging communicative tasks. Shak and Gardner (2008) advance that task familiarity, contextual support and pair work enhance young L2 learners' motivation and enjoyment of focus on form tasks, embedded in a meaningful communicative context. Formulaic language and vocabulary learning are internal individual language affordances. Ellis (2012) maintains that formulaic language serves as a crutch for beginner learners performing regular communicative functions, but also provides input for the development of rule-based knowledge used in creative productions. Myles's (2012) longitudinal study supports this notion, illustrating how beginner learners relied on rote-learned formulaic sequences to meet their communicative needs that their interlanguage was unable to. Myles advances that the formulaic sequences are used as models for the learners' developing

grammars. Myles found that the learners later broke up formulaic sequences, using parts of learnt sequences for a wider range of communicative needs. Task repetition, on-line planning time and interlocutor familiarity are task implementation variables that are also recognized as task-based external individual language affordances. Integrating different theories in a transdisciplinary investigation of the literature, regarding young beginner L2 learners in the instructional setting, allows for consolidating relevant findings, describing a domain that is most conducive for L2 development, informing L2 curriculum design and implementation.

Task-based language learning allows for language form-meaning-function mappings congruent with learners' individual internal syllabi, when they engage with language during authentic communication. Alcón Soler and Del Pilar Garcia Mayo (2008) argue that interaction, negotiation, corrective feedback and focus on form draw learners' attention, facilitating the form-meaning mapping process. However, they consider context and age to be important factors in determining the type of interaction and the degree of explicitness in focus on form. Ellis (2003) proposes a modular approach to syllabus design, where focus on form are gradually introduced, assuming a greater proportion of the total teaching time, as learners' proficiency increases. With regard to young L2 learners, age and cognitive development are further considerations supporting such a modular approach. Additionally, in the instructional setting with limited instructional time, explicit language focus and rate of learning are significant factors (Muñoz, 2008). See sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2 for age-related research findings. In section 5.5.3, these and other theoretical perspectives and research findings are consolidated regarding a task-based syllabus for young beginner learners. Nunan (2004) states that the grading, sequencing and integration of content for a language programme are complicated and difficult processes of syllabus design. He refers to the non-linearity of language development, differences in learners' abilities, the combinations and integrated fashion in which language is presented in input, learners' varying background knowledge, varying learner individual factors, as well as procedural factors inherent to different language tasks. Ellis and Shintani (2014) describe Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis as an attempt to determine the complexity level of different tasks, which can be used to grade and sequence tasks. Robinson maintains that the Cognition Hypothesis presents a triadic model for determining and developing complexity within a single task (Robinson, 2007, 2010). Robinson (2010) illustrates pedagogic applications of the Cognition Hypothesis with the SSARC model, allowing for variation in task-repetition, while pushing language output in terms of language complexity and accuracy. (See section 3.2.4.)

A single affordance might not be perceived or effectuated if the action-goal relationship is not obvious to the observer. Aronin and Singleton (2012) explain that a set of affordances allows for a given action to be performed and for a given goal to be achieved. They describe a set or package of affordances that includes social and individual affordances presented in the community or setting, actions and materials, as well as conducive feelings or emotions. The task-based curriculum design with a central focus on process, presents different task types and task contents as tools for task-based teaching, which are considered goal affordances for classroom interaction. Tomlinson (2013) explains how teaching materials are adapted and how the actual use of teaching materials vary according to the teacher's pedagogical needs and goals. Modified input, whether text or discourse, is an external individual language affordance, and includes simplification, elaboration and enhancement, affording intake (see section 2.2.4.1). Describing studies indicating that creative activities, process drama materials and language awareness tasks were perceived as motivating and enjoyable, Tomlinson further maintains the importance of incorporating a needs driven spoken corpus in material design. In accordance with the affordances theory, it is argued that materials based on communicative needs corpus present an affordance with a clear action-goal relationship. Task types have to consider the needs and goals of learners within a specific context. Philp and Duchesne (2008) identify affiliation and social positioning as strong needs of young language learners, while Adamson and Davidson (2003) report academic achievement to be a major goal amongst primary school learners in Hong Kong. Task-based curriculum design creates a domain proffering task actions with clearly stated non-linguistic outcomes, linked to young learners' communicative, social, academic and emotional needs and goals. However, task-based curriculum implementation is flexible, regarding the context and individual learners' needs. In section 5.2 the construct of task is explored further.

Summarizing this section, the language curriculum is advanced as a language affordance when its aims and objectives are in line with the immediate, experiential needs and goals of the language learner. A task-based syllabus, which is learner-driven and learning orientated, providing input and feedback matching the learner's learning needs, grading and sequencing tasks according to cognitive complexity, which pushes learner output through negotiated interaction, presents a set of language affordances, creating a domain which is most conducive to language use and language development.

2.6 A CRITICAL REVIEW OF THE CURRENT SOUTH AFRICAN LANGUAGE POLICY, MULTILINGUAL DEVELOPMENTS AND LANGUAGE CURRICULUMS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

This study applies an affordances theory to isiXhosa second language learning in South African primary schools, specifically in the Intermediate Phase of primary schools in the Eastern Cape, investigating language affordances for young beginner learners. The four dimensions of affordances, namely identification, perception, effectuation and creation of affordances, are investigated within available literature and data. (De Kadt, 2005, De Klerk, 2006, Die Burger, 2012, Dowling, 2011, Gobingca, 2013, Heugh, 2013, Heugh, Prinsloo, Makgamatha, Diedericks and Winnaar, 2017, Murray, 2012, National Curriculum Statement, 2011, Plüddermann, Braam, Broeder, Extra and October, 2004, Somhlahllo, 2009, The Incremental Introduction of African Languages in South African Schools, 2013, The South African Constitution, 1996, Turner, 2012, Wildsmith, 2013, www.iol.co.za, www.statssa.gov.za) Multilingual trends, language policies and the language curriculum are identified as affordances for language learning in primary schools of the Eastern Cape.

2.6.1 Identification of language affordances in South Africa

Social and individual language affordances are currently rife in a democratic, free South Africa. Maintaining that information about the self must be accompanied by information of the environment, Aronin and Singleton (2012) argue for the sensitization of teachers and learners towards the availability of affordances. Affordances are perceived in accordance with the needs of teachers and learners, leading to language use and learning when they are effectuated.

2.6.1.1 Multilingual developments in South Africa

South Africa has a diverse linguistic society. According to the South African census of 2011, 98% of the population speaks one or more of the eleven official languages. In every province or region, with the exception of bigger, more multilingual cities and the Northern Cape, which is predominantly Afrikaans, an African language is spoken along with Afrikaans and English.

IsiXhosa is spoken as a first language by 16% of the South African population. In the Eastern Cape, 78.8% of the population speaks isiXhosa as a first language, with 10.6% Afrikaans and 5.6% English (Statistical release, Revised, PO301.4, 2011). For an Afrikaans or English first language speaker, living in the Eastern Cape presents positive affordances for vertical multilingualism. The linguistic environment in the Eastern Cape is also an external individual

language affordance with many public signs, sign boards and posters written in all three these languages.

The typological distance between these languages in the Eastern Cape present negative language affordances for isiXhosa L2 acquisition. IsiXhosa is an African language within Niger–Congo family, while English and Afrikaans have West-Germanic origins. The typological distance between isiXhosa on the one hand, and English and Afrikaans on the other hand in terms of syntactic structure, phonology and pragmatic or cultural differences is significant.

An investigation into some of the language nominations commonly used in local speech communities indicates negative affordances for isiXhosa additional language learning. Language nominations used to refer to English include *lingua franca*, the language of teaching and learning and “the white man’s language” (“isiLungu”). Afrikaans is referred to as a mother-tongue, home language, additional language and the language of the oppressor in the previous Apartheid era (“isiBulu”). Language nominations that are used in the context of isiXhosa include, mother-tongue, home language, African language, ethnic language and cultural language. Murray (2012) maintains that languages are used for different purposes in the South African society. The local language nominations support this view pointing towards societal attitudes regarding the particular roles and functions of these languages in the speech communities and schools. According to Murray, isiXhosa is associated with tradition, cultural roles, identity and social belonging. She states that an additional language is conceptualized as a language of teaching and learning in the language curriculum. This analysis of language nominations indicates that teaching isiXhosa as an additional language is not at present effectively conceptualized in the Eastern Cape, contributing to non-isiXhosa speakers perceiving the current additional language curriculum as a negative affordance for multilingualism.

Since the introduction of a democratic dispensation in 1994, South African schools’ populations have become increasingly linguistically diverse. IsiXhosa first language speakers generally comprise the majority of the school population in the Eastern Cape, even in schools where English or Afrikaans are used as the language of teaching and learning. For young children in the primary school, who learn a language mainly implicitly, this linguistically diverse environment presents positive language affordances. Exposure through interaction and willingness to communicate are individual language affordances. Kinzler, Shutts and Spelke,

(2012) investigated children's language preferences in South Africa, and concluded that children preferred speakers of their first language, as they seek more familiar or intelligible speech. They found that isiXhosa children who attended school in English extended their preferences also to speech that convey higher status in the child's society. According to De Klerk (2006), English is given its status as a symbol of education, international mobility and modernity, while the ethnic status of isiXhosa is equally important to isiXhosa first language speakers, perceiving it as cultural heritage. Consequently, non-isiXhosa speakers are limited in their exposure and access to isiXhosa interaction.

In summary, societal multilingualism is a reality in South Africa. However, the current roles and status of the different languages limit the functions and registers that these languages are used for in society, and ultimately become negative affordances for the learning of isiXhosa by non-mother-tongue speakers.

2.6.1.2 South African language policy affordances

The South African government has created social language affordances for African languages by affording them official status and providing obligatory teaching of additional languages at schools. Over the last nineteen years, the Pan South African Language Board has been promoting multilingualism in South Africa by developing all languages in South Africa, and specifically the eleven official languages. The South African Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) considers multilingualism as a national resource, as it is seen to promote social cohesion and economic empowerment.

The South African Language in Education Policy of 14 July 1997, recognizes cultural diversity as a valuable asset, and states that societal and individual multilingualism is the global norm. It maintains that being multilingual should be a defining characteristic of being South African. The policy commits to the promotion of multilingualism, and to facilitate communication across the barriers of colour, language and region. The policy further expresses a belief in additive bilingualism by maintaining a home language, while providing access to effective acquisition of additional languages. However, concerning the delivery system, the policy explicates a commitment guided by results of international and local comparative research. The South African Language in Education Policy creates legal and ideational affordances for second language learning in schools.

At the ANC's 53rd National Conference, Mangaung, in December 2012, Paul Mashatile, Minister of Arts and Culture, who serves on the ANC Commission for Social Transformation,

announced that all South African learners will be learning an additional indigenous language from Grade R. This means that children in pre-primary schools, from the age of 5 years, will be learning their mother tongue and two additional languages, one of which has to be English and the other an official African language. The incremental introduction of African Languages in South African schools draft policy was released in 2013 with an aim to expand opportunities for the development of African languages, as an important way of preserving heritage and cultures. It exhibits access orientation, requiring all non-African home language speakers to learn an African language (Cassels Johnson, 2013). It also aims at extending mother-tongue education in African languages from the first three grades to the first six grades of primary schooling, indicating promotion orientation. The draft policy describes supportive language-in-education policies for access, resource, personnel and evaluation. This draft policy is a clear goal affordance, but the pilot programmes implemented at ten schools per education district in January 2014 indicate that many of the supportive language-in-education policies are not active (The implementation of the Incremental Introduction of African Languages (IIAL) Pilot Project, 2013).

The language nominations used in the language policies clearly express the aims of education in South African schools, describing the functions of educational languages. According to the draft policy, the Home Language must be one of the official languages of South Africa, and learners must already be able to speak and understand the language when they start school. The aim of Home Language education is to develop the basic competencies with a focus on reading, writing, visual and critical literacies. The first additional languages have to be one of the eleven official languages. If English is not the home language of the child, then it must be one of the learner's Additional Languages. An additional language is first learnt when the child comes to school, and the basic competencies of speaking and listening is to be developed for academic purposes, relevant to a language of learning and teaching (LoLT). The policy allows five hours of teaching per week for an additional language in the intermediate phase, which include grades 4 to 6, with learners aged 9 to 12 years, however, if the Additional Language is also the LoLT, it allows for an additional 16.5 hours of usage and exposure to the target language per week.

The South African language policy and language-in-education policy afford a great deal of effort, expertise, time and financial resources to the development of multilingualism in South Africa. The value of these language affordances must be measured in accordance to the action-goal relationship in terms of the language needs of the South African citizens and the actual language usage, illustrating purpose and value.

2.6.1.3 South African primary schools' language curriculum language affordances

The South African language curriculum for schools reflects the primacy of values of equality and humanity. It is output orientated and aims at equipping learners with the knowledge, skills and attitude needed to function in local contexts, to access higher education and to enter the work place. In 2011 the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) for additional languages was introduced in South Africa with very specific programme, promotion and assessment requirements.

CAPS represents a backward design in language curriculum development with outcomes specified in terms of skills and attitudes. The CAPS curriculum for additional languages was developed for and in English. It is used as a generic and translated into and for the other ten official languages. As English is envisioned to be the language of teaching and learning of most learners in South Africa, the objective of the curriculum is to prepare learners for academic usage. The first three years of primary school education focus on listening and speaking, to interact and negotiate meaning. The CAPS for the Foundation Phase creates affordances for second language learning through a mainly communicative approach. In the Intermediate Phase, however, there is more emphasis on thinking and reasoning, with a text-based approach supplementing the communicative language teaching approach. If the additional language becomes the language of teaching and learning in the Intermediate phase, the learners will be afforded additional time to be exposed to and to use the target language. This is not the case for isiXhosa as an additional language. The CAPS for additional languages promotes equality of all learners and languages, however, Murray (2012) argues that equal does not mean similar. Pointing out that different languages are learnt for different purposes, Murray maintains that a common language curriculum for all languages is, therefore, inappropriate and ineffective. Explaining that there exist discrepancies between languages in terms of the difficulty of phonics, morphology and syntax, as well as registers and available genres, she further maintains that teachers and learners have different needs and goals in terms of teaching methodology, due to these differences in the additional languages.

In 2013, the Incremental Introduction of African Languages, draft policy was issued and provisionally introduced in a couple of South African primary schools. This educational policy provides learners with two additional languages, along with their first language, taught from Grade 1, although, eventually, the policy is to be implemented from preschool (i.e. Grade R). An African language, like isiXhosa, is taught as a second First Additional Language. No new

language curriculum has been developed for this purpose, and the generic English First Additional Language Curriculum is to be implemented. According to Murray (2012), this curriculum has too ambitious assessment standards and inappropriate text genres for most of the African languages, like isiXhosa. The CAPS document for additional languages have very specific teaching plans, including descriptions of content, skills and strategies, prescribed text types stipulating the required the length of texts, standards for the size of vocabulary and the teaching of language structures. IsiXhosa has transparent orthographies, in comparison to English's opaque orthographies. IsiXhosa's morphology and syntax are rich in agreement markings. IsiXhosa is a highly inflectional and agglutinative language, with fifteen noun classes that are not referentially transparent, and these dictate the agreement that accumulate on the verb stem. The subject noun is optional pro-drop, and word order allows for variation. These and other clearly significant typological differences between English and isiXhosa support the notion that a common language curriculum is a negative affordance for language learning and multilingualism.

In summary, the South African language curriculum in primary schools presents a positive affordance for creating equality in status and importance for all the official languages. The Incremental Introduction of African Languages creates positive affordances for more equal opportunities for the learning of all official languages. However, the current common curriculum for the learning of all additional languages is a negative affordance for the learning of languages, other than possibly English, and, therefore, a negative affordance for multilingualism.

2.6.2 Perception, effectuation and creation of affordances for isiXhosa second language learning in the Eastern Cape

Since the affordance of official status for African Languages, such as isiXhosa in 1994, with the introduction of democracy in South Africa, language affordances for African L2 learning have not been effectuated in South African schools. The perception of affordances for learning isiXhosa as a second language relies on a clear action-goal relationship, while effectuation is more likely when a domain is created with a set of positive language affordances. A set of affordances includes social language affordances, external individual and internal individual language affordances. In the instructional L2 setting language affordances are only perceived when they match the needs and goals of teachers and learners.

Positive social language affordances were identified, including legislation and linguistic diversity in society and schools, in the Eastern Cape. However, an inappropriate language

curriculum, subject choice, the lack of qualified isiXhosa L2 teachers and the dearth of L2 teaching and learning resource materials are negative language affordances. The South African Language in Education Policy (1997) states that schools are required to offer an official language, if there are at least 40 learners in a grade in the primary school who express the need to learn one of the official languages. In the Eastern Cape, where the majority of children are isiXhosa Home Language learners, there are few public schools that can offer isiXhosa First Additional Language. In the past, isiXhosa as an Additional Language was taught at a number of English or Afrikaans medium primary schools in the Western and Eastern Cape provinces of South Africa. Since the introduction of CAPS in 2011, isiXhosa was offered as a choice subject with Afrikaans in English Home Language schools. However, as a second language it has not been considered accessible for many non-mother tongue speakers, due to its perceived difficulty and topological distance to West-Germanic languages. As a result, the isiXhosa First Additional Language classes were generally filled with mother-tongue speakers. However, even for mother-tongue speakers, the learning of isiXhosa First Additional Language presents problems due to the variation between the standard, literary variety taught and the spoken, vernacular varieties. It is a reality that there have been no CAPS approved teaching resources for Intermediate Phase, isiXhosa First Additional Language. The shortage of qualified second language teachers also presents a challenge for the Incremental Introduction of African Languages (2013). Many isiXhosa teachers allocated to schools for additional language teaching have a home language teaching background. Murray (2012) explains that in the past African languages were taught within a structural, synthetic approach, emphasizing grammar and phonology. The South African government's Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement for Additional Languages (2011) and the Draft Policy for the Incremental Introduction of African Languages in South African Schools (2013) support a communicative and text-based approach to language teaching and learning. For many teachers, the transition to the CAPS curriculum is made more difficult by a lack of appropriate teaching and learning resource materials.

The introduction of a second First Additional Language in primary schools to promote and strengthen the use of African languages by all learners in South Africa is a sure-fire and happening affordance, but language affordances must answer in the needs and goals of learners and teachers to be perceived and effectuated. Young learners acquire a language mainly implicitly, requiring extensive exposure to and interaction in the TL. In primary school, classroom teaching requires a holistic teaching approach, with teachers teaching most subjects

in multilingual classrooms. In the intermediate phase of primary schools, classroom teaching generally continues as in the foundation phase, while the learning areas increase from three to six, comprising ten subjects (11 with the second additional language), while teachers are faced with limited instructional time, having to match learners' abilities, interests, motivations and curriculum demands, supporting all learners to achieve a measure of success in language development. In such classrooms, a domain, comprising of external individual language affordances, including task-based teaching methodology, multilingual classroom procedures and a graded task-based syllabus, as well as internal individual language affordances, such as positive and self-evaluative feelings and attitudes, allows for the effectuation of social language affordances, including language education policies and linguistic diversity, promoting multilingualism. Kirwan (2014) describes how a positive awareness in terms of language diversity is created in her school in Dublin. This is done by incorporating a language awareness component in the content of all lessons, valuing all the languages spoken by learners in the class, including writing activities with two languages in parallel texts and explicit metalinguistic discussions comparing and exploring languages analytically. Kirwan maintains that it stimulates implicit language learning and cognitive development, while supporting affective factors relating to valuing all languages and cultures. Supporting the value of similar translanguage practices in South African schools, Heugh (2013) argues that systematic, purposeful multilingual practices must also provide vertical access to power through standard academic literacies and genres, connecting the different languages of the multilingual. Cummins and Persad (2014) maintain the importance of affirming multilingual learners' identities through translanguage or cross-language activities in content subject learning, activating background knowledge and vertically extending their languages, incorporating developing academic literacies and knowledge.

The important role of teachers and the need for teacher training, supporting multilingualism and linguistic diversity by sensitizing teachers to language affordances, are recognized by numerous linguists and educationalists (Cummins and Persad, 2014, De Costa and Norton, 2017, Heugh, 2015, Higgins and Ponte, 2017, Kirwan, 2014). Kirwan (2014) lists two requirements for implementing language awareness, supporting linguistic diversity in schools: a supportive classroom environment and teacher training. The language curriculum shapes the teaching and learning environment, while teachers are mainly responsible for curriculum enactment resulting from perceiving affordances in accordance to their needs and goals (Graves, 2008). Maintaining the importance of language for interpersonal communication and cognitive

development, Kirwan advances that teachers should be equipped professionally to create the kind of environment where learners learn to communicate, while increasing their awareness of how meaning is constructed.

Happening and sure-fire affordances can be ignored if they are not in line with the individual's needs and goals. The obligatory teaching of three languages is a sure-fire affordance in many primary schools. Growing up in a target language-embedded context can be considered a happening affordance for non-isiXhosa speaking children in numerous Eastern Cape schools. In the Eastern Cape, the linguistic environment provides social affordances for isiXhosa second language learning, however, the current First Additional Language curriculum, the lack of supporting education policies' coordination and implementation, including teacher training, do not support the effectuation of these social affordances.

2.7 PRELIMINARY INSIGHTS AS TO THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE AFFORDANCES THEORY FOR THE LEARNING AND TEACHING OF ISIXHOSA AS A SECOND LANGUAGE IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

Three principles are suggested for the affordances theory: the identification of learning needs, the importance of considering size and the dynamic nature of affordances presenting a relationship between the learning environment and processing mechanisms. (See section 2.2.5.) The significance of this theory for isiXhosa L2 learning and teaching in primary school intermediate phase relates to the study of complexity, allowing teachers to create language affordances, evaluate uptake, and adjust task input and processing complexity to match individual learners' learning needs, in terms of learners' current level of interlanguage, cognitive and language development.

The notion of learning being an incremental, cumulative process adds a dynamic dimension to the affordances theory. This affordances theory proposes that within the second language instructional context, curriculum planning should seek to identify a set of complementary affordances on a cline to match learners' language development. The affordance is defined as the relationship between the input that environment offers and the needs and abilities of the individual, at a particular time. The dimension of time in language development supports the affordances theory, recognizing the dynamic nature of language affordances, in second language acquisition theory. The L2 learner's perception of available affordances changes over time, as the individual's language(s) develops. The concept of affordances within this psycholinguistic approach to second language acquisition and multilingualism is both dynamic and complex.

This study analyses language affordances available for young beginner isiXhosa L2 learners in the primary school intermediate phase. In South Africa, learners in this phase range between the ages of nine and twelve years. Partial motivation for this study is taken from SLA research that investigates the correlation between age of onset and ultimate attainment in the target language, within the instructional setting. This study supports the view that different areas of language may be affected at different times. Differences in young and older learners' processing mechanisms are supported from an affordances theory perspective, and a modular approach is suggested to match the age-related changes. For young learners, implicit learning is identified as an affordance.

It is advanced that instruction for very young learners should provide an input rich environment, affording opportunities for implicit learning through language chunks. Exemplar-based learning, including learning poems and songs, affords implicit learning by providing morphosyntactic and phonetic evidence for young learners. When exemplar-based language learning is accompanied by visual support, competitive games, creative and physical activities in task-based language teaching, it affords meaningful experiential learning experiences. Vocabulary learning and formulaic language, which afford social functions, are considered valuable for beginners. For older learners, who rely more on explicit learning, the use of L1, focus on form, learning and listening strategies, as well as establishing a multilingual or L2 identity, are advanced. See sections 4.3.1 and 7.3.2.2 for a discussion of SLA perspectives on language input and examples of language teaching activities for pedagogic practice.

This study advances task-based language teaching as creating a domain, within formal instructional settings, for the acquisition of a second language, by providing a clear action-goal condition. Task-based teaching is proposed to create a domain that is most conducive for language learning by presenting a number of complementary positive language affordances. Still, the linguistic, emotional and social needs and goals of young learners have to be considered. In the language classroom, poor or ineffective learner performance indicates the failure of effectuation of affordances. Combining suitable task types, considering different interactional patterns, with age-appropriate input and non-linguistic goals, so as to match learners' emotional, social and learning needs, constitutes an effective action-goal relationship, allowing language affordances to be perceived. Task complexity that is adjusted to match learners' current and developing linguistic needs permits uptake of language affordances, resulting in language use and learning. A task-based syllabus is advanced as a set of positive affordances, granting language development by creating a conducive time-space for learners

from diverse linguistic backgrounds to engage in language use. Task-based language teaching and a task-based syllabus for young learners are explored in chapter 5.

This study supports the promotion of multilingualism by integrating various theoretical perspectives, describing language curriculum design promoting the use of communicative tasks, which are meaningful and engaging for young learners, representing a learning environment, rich in language learning affordances that can be adjusted on a cline of complexity to match language development.

2.8 SUMMARY

The affordances theory offers a methodological and explanatory approach, addressing the dynamic and complex matters relating to second language learning of isiXhosa at social, external and internal individual levels. An analysis of Gibson's classical affordance theory and other affordances theories on second language learning identified categories, subcategories, dimensions and criteria of affordances, which support the investigation of isiXhosa additional language learning and teaching in primary schools of the Eastern Cape, South Africa.

In this chapter the identification, perception, effectuation and creation of affordances were dimensions applied to the criteria of multilingualism, language policy and language curriculum design. The findings made explicit sociolinguistic trends and the effectuation of affordances for multilingualism in primary schools in the Eastern Cape, where non-isiXhosa speaking children learn isiXhosa, together with isiXhosa mother-tongue children, as an additional language.

The affordances theory permitted a critical review of the current context of learning and teaching isiXhosa as an additional language in the Eastern Cape, South Africa. The multilingual society, linguistic diversity amongst learners, typological differences between L1 and TL, the non-linear nature of L2 development and diverse linguistic competencies of the learners add to the complexity and dynamics of the second language acquisition processes, in this instructional L2 learning context. The affordances theory allowed for a selective view, applying principles that supported a systematic investigation into complex phenomena, presenting a literate motivated theory for testing.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING AND MULTILINGUALISM

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Second language acquisition research questions whether language learning is cognitive or social, investigating which processes and mechanisms make second language development possible. This chapter investigates Second Language Acquisition (SLA), Third Language Acquisition (TLA) and multilingualism literature and research studies with the view of defining these concepts. In addition, it explores theories that attempt to address these questions. The affordances theory for second language (L2) learning maintains that perception is only possible if the cognitive processing system matches the language affordances available in the environment, but emphasizes observable actions as evidence of perception. This chapter examines *perception* as the interface between cognitive and social language learning processes.

In this chapter, differences between cognitive and social approaches in SLA are examined with regard to the aims and methods of research. With reference to Whong's (2011) views on language, Whong and Wright (2013) describe the difference between internal, psycholinguistic approaches and external, sociolinguistic approaches in terms of the different research methods used. They assert that the former uses scientific, positivist, experimental and quantitative methods, while the latter uses constructivist, exploratory, observational and qualitative methods to investigate SLA phenomena. Ellis (2012) distinguishes between the normative and the interpretative paradigm. A cognitive approach to second language learning and teaching considers target language (TL) input as triggering the internal mechanisms responsible for acquisition. According to Ellis, researchers who work within the normative paradigm employ quantitative measures to test theories and hypotheses. On the other hand, a social approach to second language learning and teaching considers acquisition as an external process that occurs within social interactions. Qualitative research methods are generally used by researchers to explore and interpret the specific conditions that contribute to L2 development. The epistemological divide between social and cognitive approaches, as well as associated research methods, is discussed in section 3.2.

Different theories within social and cognitive approaches provide insight into complex SLA phenomena, including complexity in language and language learning. In section 3.2.2 and 3.2.3 of this chapter, a literary review of theories supported by social perspectives and cognitive

perspectives respectively, is presented. In section 3.2.4, the Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2005b) is analyzed regarding the affordances theory explicated in chapter 2. Although the Cognition Hypothesis is motivated by cognitive research findings, it also incorporates social perspectives on L2 learning. While supporting a cumulative view of learning measured in components of L2 development, the Cognition Hypothesis considers the contextual and individual factors to interact with individual differences, resulting in task complexity and task difficulty (Robinson, 2010, 2011b).

This study considers multilingualism as a functional human disposition. In section 3.3 of this chapter, related concepts, such as third language learning, bilingualism and multicompetence are analyzed. Research findings from bilingual and multilingual studies are discussed, and the value of multilingualism is underscored. Multilingual proficiency is a dynamic and complex phenomenon that impresses on the language learning process. The conceptual challenges evolving from multilingual research studies are considered, when definitions as applied to relevant constructs in this study are described.

The innate nature of language learning, the dynamisms of multilingualism and the complexity of individual second language acquisition benefit from both social and cognitive perspectives, conceptualizing and investigating the processes and mechanisms involved in second language learning and teaching. This chapter describes central concepts to the study of complexity in language and language learning, including the multilingualism, second language and second language learning, cross-linguistic transfer, second language development, as well as the Cognition Hypothesis and SSARC model, which are applied to the investigation of communicative tasks and task-based language teaching (TBLT) for young beginner isiXhosa additional language learners in chapters 5, 6 and 7.

3.2 COGNITIVE AND SOCIAL APPROACHES TO SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

This study forms part of the intellectual field of enquiry of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). As an interdisciplinary field, there exist distinct perspectives in SLA regarding the scope of enquiry and appropriate methods of study. Herschensohn and Young-Scholten (2013) describe SLA as the scientific field of research investigating the acquisition of languages subsequent to acquiring a native language. However, such a view does not allow for the phenomenon of bilingualism. With reference to Houwer's (1995) study of pre-school children, Philp, Mackey and Oliver (2008) describe the early, simultaneous, continued exposure to more than one language, before the age of two, as resulting in bilingual acquisition. Nicholas and

Lightbown's (2008) study of early second language acquisition indicates that young second language learners, between the ages of 2 and 7, already have insights into the nature of language as a tool, and about how language works. They suggest that due to this experience-related knowledge of the nature of language in relation to a social context, the processes of the additional languages' development will be distinct from those of the first language. Considering cognitive development, instead of chronological acquisition order, SLA is defined as *the academic field of research into the human capacity to learn languages other than the first language(s) learnt during infancy and very early childhood*.

The interest in second language learning and the large body of research studies contributing to a better understanding of SLA have grown exponentially in the last fifty years, substantiating the complexity of factors and processes involved. Ortega (2009) maintains that Second Language Acquisition is an interdisciplinary inquiry, originating from child language acquisition, language teaching, linguistics and psychology, that was first established in the late 1960's. Hulstijn (2013) recognizes that in the past 40 years, SLA research has shifted from a mainly linguistic discipline to a more transdisciplinary field, which includes socio-psychological, neuro-cognitive and social perspectives. Presenting their view, Ellis and Shintani (2014) maintain a pedagogic impetus, arguing that much of early SLA research aimed at improving language instruction by describing the development of learner language. Rothman and VanPatten (2013) extend this view suggesting that when researchers emphasize the environmental context, the resulting SLA theories are more useful for language instruction. They maintain that theories addressing the cognitive processes involved in constructing a second language are less practical for language instruction. However, Rothman and VanPatten also uphold that SLA is complex and needs different theories to address different components and processes of language acquisition. Supporting this notion, Del Pilar Garcia Mayo and Alcón Soler (2013) state that as a multiplex phenomenon, SLA requires diverse perspectives to describe the complex processes involved. Young (2014) endorses different perspectives on L2 learning and L2 use, referring to the infinite and complex phenomena that demand selective attention, and how these contribute to the variety and diversity within the SLA discipline. Ortega (2005) distinguishes instructed SLA research as investigating L2 learning, aiming at understanding and improving the instructional practices. She maintains that rather than the epistemologies justifying the legitimacy and quality of human research, it is the moral-political purposes that should be regarded for guiding sustained research efforts. Ortega argues that the value of SLA is measured in terms of social utility.

Perspectives in SLA fall on a continuum, presenting either a more cognitive or social approach to investigating and describing L2 learning mechanisms and processes. According to Atkinson (2014), cognitivism initially dominated conventional SLA studies, however, social influences have significantly increased in the past 20 years. Atkinson recounts the controversy regarding the rationalization, standardization and unification of SLA studies, which started in the 1990's. Hulstijn (2013) argues that the number of different SLA theories and studies are not problematic, because the most conclusive theories will dominate. He maintains, however, that as a scientific field, SLA should produce more empirical studies than non-empirical studies to maintain legitimacy. Ortega (2014) points out that socio-cultural awareness creates theoretical pressures on cognitive traditionalists with intellectual developments in the field of SLA. DeKeyser (2014) agrees that scientific knowledge is embedded in a social-cultural context, but rejects the notion that all scientific knowledge is relative. He asserts that all theories must allow for hypothesis testing. Arguing for transparency in research studies, Hulstijn (2013) explains that even when theories are not ready for testing, researchers must express explicitly their theory's testability. As these compelling views indicate, the socio-cognitive dispute stems mainly from epistemological differences.

To encapsulate, different research methods serve different aims, representing diverse perspectives in SLA, supporting the existing theoretical diversity that contributes positively to addressing complex issues regarding the nature of L2 learning.

3.2.1 Second language acquisition research methods

Different focusses in SLA result in different aims for research associating with particular methods of investigation. An overview of different SLA research methods contributes to a clearer understanding of different perspectives on L2 learning.

Opposing views in SLA argue the scientific value and reliability of quantitative and qualitative research methods, respectively. Hulstijn, Young and Ortega (2014) maintain that the divide in SLA research between social approaches and cognitive approaches are not ontological, but epistemological. According to Hulstijn, Young and Ortega, researchers within these different schools of thought study the same phenomena, but disagree about what is the appropriate method of enquiry. Social approaches are associated with qualitative research, and cognitive approaches with quantitative studies. A number of researchers support the notion that the best perspective on SLA phenomena can be obtained from mixing qualitative and quantitative research methods (DeKeyser, 2014, Ellis, 2012, Hashemi and Babaii, 2013, Jang, 2013, Whong

and Wright, 2013). An argument for task-based research and action research for improving instructional practices is supported by a clear action-goal relationship in accordance with the affordances theory.

Second language acquisition unites epistemologically irreconcilable research approaches in a singular field of inquiry. DeKeyser (2014) describes conflicting research perspectives that either value control over context, or reliability over validity. Hulstijn, Young and Ortega (2014) explain that cognitive rationalists aim at generalizing SLA theory through quantitative research methods and empirical hypothesis testing. On the other hand, social relativists aim at describing environmental factors and behaviour, or interactional patterns through qualitative research methods. Ortega (2009) points out that, whereas traditional cognitive-interactionist research frameworks aimed at identifying universal patterns and principles that explain L2 learning as a general phenomenon, advocates of a social-cultural approach to SLA research stress the social and context-specific nature of language learning and language use. Ellis (2014) argues that different research methods fulfil different purposes, and that cognitive and sociocultural approaches are complementary, but epistemic independent. DeKeyser (2014) maintains that qualitative research describes, explains and predicts, serving a hypotheses-generating function, whereas quantitative research tests hypotheses.

Young (2014) illustrates the foci of qualitative research with reference to a number of social theories and approaches, including the constructivist grounded theory and the critical approach. He maintains that qualitative research posits the significance of the research participants' subjective interpretations by making use of longitudinal case studies, narrative enquiries that are first-person participant accounts and longitudinal ethnographic studies, which include interviews, observations and relevant documents. Young further maintains that qualitative research values the interpretation of data by the researcher. He cites constructivist grounded theory, where theory arises from collected and analyzed data, and action research, which is undertaken by teacher-researchers and based on their own practice and beliefs, to support this point. Young states that qualitative research pays particular attention to the context of language learning and use by highlighting affordances created for learning through social ideologies and powers, such as research studies within a critical approach.

On the other hand, quantifying observational data narrows the research focus, allowing for objective interpretations, comparisons and generalizations beyond the specific research study context. According to Larson-Hall (2014), quantitative research confirms theories through

scientific investigations that present results in numbers. Larson-Hall explains that information is coded as numbers through tests scores, attitudinal survey points or reaction times. Objective measures assure reliable and objective results that can be generalized or replicated with different participants. Larson-Hall describes a common framework for reporting data used by quantitative researchers. This involves a hypothesis based on previous or related research, statistical results, which include the mean, standard deviation, sample size and effect size, and a null hypothesis significance testing that is either true or rejected. The effect size depends on sample sizes, and larger sample sizes provide less ambiguous statistical results. Larson-Hall maintains that quantitative approaches, aspiring after objectivity and reliability in research, dominate the field of SLA at present.

Mixed-method research seeks to counterpoise the negative effects of qualitative and quantitative research approaches by integrating qualitative and quantitative methods throughout a singular SLA study. DeKeyser (2014) maintains that answers to scientific questions come from bodies of literature, and not from individual studies. He proposes that mixed-method research of a longitudinal nature ensures reliability and validity. Jang (2013) describes mixed methods research as an inquiry approach that includes both qualitative and quantitative methods. DeKeyser (2014) suggests a cycle that starts off descriptive with qualitative research, then investigates correlations through quantitative measures, followed by hypotheses testing through experimental research. Jang (2013) states that mixed methods research produces findings that are greater than the sum of their parts. She asserts that by conversing emic and etic knowledge, mixed methods research presents a contextually sensitive understanding of SLA phenomena, while remaining transferable. According to Hashemi and Babaii (2013), mixed methods design is very effective for conducting SLA research, considering the complex nature of SLA phenomena and processes. Hashemi and Babaii review a number of mixed methods research studies to determine the plausibility of integrating qualitative and quantitative methods. They conclude that in order for mixed methods research to be most effective, it must lead to interpretations of integrated results based on systematic integration of qualitative and quantitative components throughout all stages of a study.

Ellis (2012) emphasizes pedagogical relevance of SLA research. Ellis proposes process-product, mixed-method studies that observes the processes, and compares the learning results of different teaching methods applied in language classrooms. He distinguishes descriptive from confirmatory research. Ellis explains that descriptive research investigates the processes without any form of intervention, while acknowledging subjectivity in understanding, and

interpreting the phenomena under investigation. According to Ellis, confirmatory research investigates the learning product, assuming that the phenomena under investigation exist in an objective reality, and that the findings can be applied to the general population. Confirmatory research investigates the relationships between clearly defined dependent and independent variables determined by some form of intervention. Ellis asserts that process-product studies are effective, powerful mixed methods for investigating language teaching.

Task is a popular construct in both social and cognitive research studies. According to Ellis (2012), the investigation of tasks has been the central focus in language teaching research for the last 30 years. Describing the action-goal relationship of task-based language teaching research, Van den Branden (2006) states that the term task-based language teaching (TBLT) was developed primarily by SLA researchers and language educators in response to empirical descriptions of teacher-orientated, form-focused language classroom practices. Van den Branden describes TBLT research as psycholinguistic in nature and directed at explaining how a second language is acquired. Kumaradivelu (2006) refers to the volumes of research that resulted from the implementation of TBLT, and describes it as applying more disciplined investigative procedures, resulting in a more extensive psycholinguistic understanding of second language acquisition. Samuda and Bygate (2008) list different dimensions of task research. They distinguish between micro or macro qualitative and quantitative studies, depending on the number of participants. They further distinguish between systemic studies, when the information is gathered at a specific point in time, and process studies, when the results are gathered before, during and after participants perform a task. Ellis (2012) lists some of the major focusses of TBLT research, including input-based tasks, interactive tasks, focus on form, and the impact of various task-design and implementation variables on learner production measured in fluency, accuracy and complexity. Questioning the general validity of these TBLT research findings in practice, Van den Branden (2006) posits that most of TBLT research was conducted under laboratory conditions or tightly controlled settings, and far less empirical research was conducted in actual language classrooms, where tasks are used as the basic units for organizing educational practices. Ellis describes the sociocultural theory perspective in TBLT research as emic, and focusing on how interactants interpret and construct their performance together during task execution. Ellis suggests that sociocultural orientated research provides valuable insight into critical task-based learning factors and conditions, such as pre-task planning, negotiation of meaning and task engagement. Ellis suggests that in order for classroom research to be ethical, it would have to adopt an emic perspective, which is

descriptive with no intervention, however, in order to generalize findings to the wider population, an etic perspective is needed, which is objectively and quantitatively measured. The issue of TBLT is explored further in chapter 5.

With the growing body of SLA research records, meta-analysis studies are able to present a summative perspective on L2 research questions. A meta-analysis synthesizes the data from different research studies. Arguing the value of meta-analysis studies, Norris and Ortega (2000) maintain that the findings of individual studies are too easily attributable to chance variability, or to the idiosyncrasies of the research process. Instead, they maintain that a meta-analysis interprets all available primary research findings that share a research focus. Norris and Ortega further maintain that a meta-analysis uses statistical procedures for estimating an overall result about a defined condition or treatment, as well as for estimating the reliability of interpretations by considering frequency and consistency of the described effects regarding a particular variable. Shintani, Li and Ellis describe a meta-analysis study as providing a quantitative synthetic evaluation of all relevant previous empirical research findings on a specific construct (2013:298). Plonsky and Oswald (2013) encapsulate it as a quantitative procedure for averaging a set of numbers. They explain that meta-analytic averaging is calculated either as a correlation coefficient, or as a standardized mean difference between or within groups. The meta-analysis can then indicate whether these results are due to a subgroup difference, or due to another study characteristic. According to Plonsky and Oswald, meta-analysis is very useful within the SLA discipline that produces continuously expanding diversity of research designs, measures and findings. They list systematicity, greater transparency and replicability as some of the advantages of the meta-analysis process. The use of effect sizes to estimate the size of the relationship(s) under investigation, and the use of results of earlier studies to test new theories that were not addressed in the primary literature are also listed by Plonsky and Oswald as advantageous functions of meta-analysis studies.

Summarizing this section, different SLA research methods, supporting distinct perspectives in SLA, contribute to a better understanding of the numerous factors and processes involved in second language learning. Different questions require different research methods. A mixed-methods, longitudinal research design, integrating quantitative and qualitative research methods throughout, affords greater validity and reliability. Task-based language teaching research investigates second language acquisition in the instructional setting by adopting a more psycholinguistic perspective on language learning. Over the last three decades task-based research has resulted in a large number of studies that expand our understanding of the

processes and mechanisms involved in second language use and learning, including the role of task design variables and complexity development. A meta-analysis of related research studies can provide comprehensive insights and more conclusive results.

3.2.2 Social perspectives on language learning

Social perspectives focus on the role of context and contextual factors in shaping L2 processes. The L2 learning context is regarded important for this study supported by the affordances theory, advancing that social and external individual affordances are prerequisites for internal individual affordances, as well as emphasizing observable actions for evaluating the uptake of affordances and learner readiness. (See sections 2.2.4 and 2.2.5.) In addition, social perspectives have particular relevance for informing pedagogic practices.

Different social perspectives and theories describe L2 processes located externally to learners, directing continuous, individual development. According to Ortega (2009), Second Language Acquisition has always been an open, interdisciplinary field. While cognitive perspectives dominated the SLA field since its emergence, social influences have also been accepted and described early in the history of SLA studies (Atkinson, 2014, Ellis and Shintani, 2014, Ortega, 2009). Amongst these earlier social perspectives, Atkinson (2014) includes Hymes' (1971) concept of communicative competence, which concerns knowledge of communicative appropriateness in social context, and Schumann's (1978) acculturation model, which considers the social and psychological distances between the L2 learner and target language culture as significant factors in the acquisition process. However, in the 1980's social perspectives emerged reconceptualizing language acquisition as fundamentally social, motivating an exclusively external research focus (Ortega, 2009).

The Vygotskian sociocultural theory is widely recognized as the most clearly articulated and accepted social approach to L2 learning in SLA (Ortega, 2009, Ellis and Shintani, 2014). According to Atkinson (2014), in the 1930's, the psychologist Vygotsky investigated how human beings develop consciousness. As the concept suggests, the focus is external and *consciousness* constitutes and regulates cognition. Supporting Vygotsky's view of consciousness, Atkinson maintains that it is gradually developed through mediation, promoting greater self-control over activities. Gánem-Gutiérrez (2013) maintains that mediation is a central construct in sociocultural theory, defining it as the process of developing the ability to use culturally constructed physical and psychological tools, like language, for controlling social and cognitive activity. Atkinson asserts that language learning always starts external, in

intrinsically meaningful interaction and co-participation with socio-culturally more advanced others, affording internalization (2014:589).

Sociocultural theory conceptualizes language learning as a triphasic process of developing consciousness, resulting in more skillful control over a social and psychological tool. Gánem-Gutiérrez (2013) explains that language is one of the tools used for developing increasing control towards full participation in social and mental activity. Ortega (2009) describes this development process as initially being object-regulated. This means that before people can communicate or converse with others, they relate to, engage with and use objects to support their activities. The next step is other-regulated development, requiring an expert's instruction, modelling and controlling the novice's activity during interactions. The final phase in developing consciousness is self-regulated. Gánem-Gutiérrez maintains that L2 learning is the increasing ability to use the target language as a mediational tool. She further maintains that internalization is the process whereby language, which is externally available in the social environment, becomes a tool or resource for cognition. Private speech is an important construct in Vygotskian sociocultural theory, illustrating how externally furnished language becomes a mediational learning tool (Atkinson, 2014). Gánem-Gutiérrez describes the process of private speech in relation to L2 development as the internalization of the L2 for cognitive, self-regulatory activity. Gánem-Gutiérrez (2013) explicates the gradual consciousness development process with reference to a study of Centeno-Cortés and Jiménez Jiménez (2004) that investigated private speech in L2 learners. This study found intermediate L2 speakers using mainly their L1 for private speech, observing that L2 speakers mixed L1 and L2, but switched to the L1 when complex reasoning was required.

Sociocultural theory determines individuals' learning readiness externally within the zone of proximal development. Ortega (2009) defines the Vygotskian construct of the *zone of proximal development* as the distance between what a learner can do in the L2 while other-regulated, and what the learner can do independently. She further explains the zone of proximal development as the emerging potential for learning, existing externally to the learner. Gánem-Gutiérrez (2013) suggests that the zone of proximal development is a crucial concept for promoting language development, as it is needed to diagnose learners' abilities in order to provide attuned assistance. She maintains that instruction and assessment are incorporated within a single educational activity. The interaction needed for constructing a zone of proximal development is referred to as scaffolding (Ellis, 2012). According to Ellis (2012), Vygotsky (1978) suggested demonstration, requests for repetition, leading questions and initiating solutions as

techniques for achieving scaffolding. Advancing sociocultural theory as explicitly and intrinsically committed to L2 development through pedagogical intervention, Gánem-Gutiérrez recognizes the need for more empirical investigations to balance an emic perspective, while identifying regularities that can contribute to SLA theory building (2013:147).

Interaction is a fundamental process in L2 acquisition. The Conversation Analysis approach theoretically reorientates *interaction* from a social perspective (Atkinson, 2013). According to Ortega (2009) cognitive-interactionalist researchers investigate the link between interaction and acquisition by exploring attitudes, comprehensible input, negotiation of meaning, pushed output and attention. (The cognitive perspective is explored in more detail in section 2.3.2.) Instead, the Conversation Analysis approach views social interaction as both the process and the product of learning (Atkinson, 2013). Atkinson describes the conversation analysis method as analyzing the micro-structures and strategies that organize all interactions, including conversations. Ortega (2009) maintains that the aim of conversation analysis is to identify universal mechanisms for organizing interaction through the detailed analysis of conversations. Ortega further states that what other approaches consider to be linguistic problems in L2 learner productions, Conversational Analysis reconceptualizes as interactional resources, including rules for turn taking, repair and sequential design. Describing conversation analysis research methods, Whong and Wright (2013) maintain that conversation analysis uses quantitative and qualitative analysis of interaction patterns. They posit that conversation analysis research contributes significantly to SLA with investigations into the role of social action, identity and context in L2 development. In discussing the role of interaction in L2 development, Ellis and Shintani (2014) refer to Swain's (1985) Comprehensible Output Hypothesis, maintaining that a number of studies and researchers within the cognitive-interactionalist SLA tradition support Swain's notion regarding the important role that output plays in L2 acquisition. However, Swain (2013) supports the Vygotskian view that the source of higher mental processes and functioning is fundamentally social. Accordingly, she reconceptualizes output as collaborative dialogue, reinterpreting learning in terms of participation rather than the cognitive processing input-output model (Ellis and Shintani, 2014:209). (See section 3.2.3 for a further discussion of cognitive processing perspectives.) Swain (2013) maintains that thoughts and emotions come into expression through collaborative dialogue and private speech. She further advances that emotional expression includes linguistic and social knowledge, which are essential for learners in using the L2 as a tool for mediation. (In section 7.3.2.2, task-based teaching activities are described, including idiomatic exclamations with emotional salience in

collaborative communicative tasks, consolidating these views with cognitive theories regarding retention of explicit knowledge, in pedagogic practice.)

The Social Identity Theory or poststructuralist identity approach supports the view that the social environment and the learner's involvement in the social context afford L2 learning (Ellis and Shintani, 2014, Atkinson, 2014). According to Ellis and Shintani (2014), the Social Identity Theory was proposed by Norton (2000) to describe the relationship between power, identity and language learning, advancing that a legitimate L2 speaker identity affords opportunities to speak and learn. Atkinson (2014) explains that language learner identities are multiple and dynamic, depending on the social context. Identities are afforded social value in terms of the power and inequalities that exist in relationships and societies, and social identities and social structuring determine learning opportunities. According to Atkinson, *investment* is a socially orientated motivational construct, resulting from the learner-community member relations. Ortega (2009) maintains that investment is when a person identifies with a language, desiring to know and use the language. Atkinson further argues that the immediate situational context is not the only relevant context for language learners, but in addition, learners are also able to identify with imagined communities visualized in terms of a future self, encouraging the learner towards a L2 identity (2014:591).

Dynamic Systems and Complexity Theory are considered social, depending on the level of analysis, as it pertains to interrelated, non-linearly interacting, complex systems (Atkinson, 2014). Ortega (2009) conceptualizes this view of language learning from an emergentism perspective. She maintains that a dynamic systems approach considers acquisition as a developing cognitive function that self-organizes its many interconnected parts according to infinite external influences (2009:104). Any change to any single part, no matter its size or significance, results in changes in the other parts. Describing the functioning of language learning within an ecology of systems, incorporating progressively larger dimensions in the ecosocial environment, Atkinson (2014) advances the principles of non-predictability and holism. According to Ellis (2014), usage-based approaches to language learning allow for the theoretical integration of social and cognitive perspectives. Ellis considers language and cognition to be mutually inextricable, and the dynamics of language learning to be inextricably linked to the dynamics of conscious activity, which functions at neural level and in the social world. He asserts that consciousness affords input into the associative network, but consciousness is collaboratively constructed in social interaction. Ellis argues, henceforth, that input into the associative network is socially and culturally gated (2014:401). Ellis maintains

that individual learning is an emergent, holistic property of a dynamic system which contains social, individual and contextual influences. Usage-based models, emergentism and associative learning are discussed further in section 3.2.3.

In summary, social perspectives on L2 learning, including the social cultural theory, the Conversation Analysis approach, the social identity theory and the Dynamic Systems approach, consider language learning as a process, not a product, which originates external to the learner. Describing the social view of language learning as a process that is never fully finished nor fully predictable, Ortega (2009) motivates why social approaches epistemologically consider the study of the particular a better disciplinary strategy than seeking generalizations. Lantolf (2014) maintains that social change causes cognitive change, therefore, rendering the psyche inherently and ontologically social.

3.2.3 Cognitive perspectives on language learning

Cognitive perspectives view language knowledge and language learning as functions of the human mind. This focus allows the investigation of language learning processes and mechanisms to be conducted within a controlled, isolated physiological environment through scientific procedures presenting generalizable conclusions. Myles (2013b) distinguishes between linguistic approaches, which investigate the language properties of the mind, and cognitive approaches, which investigate the learning mechanisms of the mind. According to Ortega (2009) the formal linguistic approach is based on a belief that humans are born with a linguistic competence or Universal Grammar, referred to as nativism. The formalist approach views language and language learning as occurring in a language-dedicated module or domain in the human mind. Ortega separates this from the general cognitive approach which rejects the modularity view of the mind in favour of general learning mechanisms. The general cognitive approach explains language competence as resulting from general learning and processing mechanisms, extracting regularities and rules from linguistic input. Information processing theories and usage-based emergentism investigate language development from a general cognitive approach.

3.2.3.1 The formalist cognitive approach

Generative theories describe an innate, specialized, cognitive language learning system. White (2014) supports Chomsky's (1981) arguments for Universal Grammar, based on the logical problem of young children acquiring very complex linguistic structures that are not salient in the L1 input. Shi's (2013) study of L1 acquisition highlights the development of

comprehension before production. Shi advances that although functional morphemes are lacking in early speech production of toddlers, there is evidence of significant perception of functional items from birth to toddlerhood. Maintaining that functional morphemes emerge early in children's grammar and affect acquisition and processing, long before children can demonstrate knowledge of these functors in their speech production, Shi argues that these findings support the notion that acquisition starts with an innate base. The significance of generative theories for this study is the extent to which Universal Grammar is still available to L2 learners, supporting implicit learning and explaining complexity in L2 development, motivating explicit focus on form. (See sections 4.4.2, 4.4.3 and 7.2.2.1.2.)

Generative theories support an ideal, native model of linguistic competence. Slabakova (2013) states that the linguistic competence of native speakers is a highly abstract and unconscious system, called Universal Grammar. White (2014) describes Universal Grammar as containing principles of language structure, which predetermine the form and function of natural languages, along with parameters, which allow for variation within the principles. Slabakova states that Universal Grammar consists of syntax, phonetic and semantic components (2013:6). The native speaker's linguistic performance reflects these components of the Universal Grammar, however, L2 performances are determined the L2 learner's perception of target language evidence, which is controlled by the availability of Universal Grammar.

White (2014) states that the generative perspective was initially interested in the extent to which L2 learners have direct or indirect (via the L1) access to Universal Grammar. The type of access explains how Universal Grammar facilitates or constrains the process of L2 acquisition (Slabakova, 2013). Slabakova maintains that the principles of Universal Grammar can be transferred from the L1 to the L2, while parameter values that are different from the L1, yet available from the Universal Grammar, afford L2 knowledge. She asserts that functional morphology is the bottleneck of acquisition, as it is used for encoding universal grammatical meanings that are language specific and depend on parametric settings. Slabakova further maintains that L2 instruction should focus on grammatical form, because functional morphology reflects syntactic and semantic differences between languages. According to White (2014) the current focus in generative approaches is on describing the interface that Universal Grammar has with external domains, such as discourse, as well as the interface between the different components of Universal Grammar.

Generative perspectives in SLA describe L2 development and complexity in L2 learning in terms of access to and the functioning of Universal Grammar. See section 4.4.3 for a further discussion regarding generative perspectives on L2 instruction of complex grammatical forms.

3.2.3.2 General cognitive approaches

General cognitive approaches to language learning oppose the notion of an autonomous, cognitive language faculty, but, instead, consider language learning as a common neurobiological function, manifesting in behavioural change. General cognitive theories regarding L2 learning are either concerned with performance-based studies of the mental processing of input, or take an emergentist approach investigating how complex language representations emerge from simpler processes (Ortega, 2009).

3.2.3.2.1 Language processing theories

Processing theories regarding input, intake, memory, interaction, output and learner readiness are very significant for the current study, supporting an affordances theory in task-based language teaching with a focus on the role of noticing and complexity in L2 acquisition (see sections 2.2.2 and 2.2.5). Different accounts of influential hypotheses and models of cognitive language processing are presented here, but are analyzed further in sections 4.3.1, 4.3.2 and 4.4.4 of the following chapter.

Language processing theories explain language acquisition from a general cognitive approach that relies on access to target language (TL) input in the linguistic environment. Ortega (2009) describes Krashen's (1985) comprehensible input hypothesis as advancing linguistic input data, slightly above learners' current language development level ($i+1$), as optimal and the most important source for L2 learning. Del Pilar Garcia Mayo and Alcón Soler (2013) view Krashen's Input Hypothesis to posit that L2 learning is implicit and accidental, as long as the input is sufficient and comprehensible. According to Ellis and Shintani (2014), Krashen (1985) suggested that contextualized input and simplified codes afford comprehensibility. Describing linguistic input data in terms of positive and negative target language evidence, Pica (2013) discusses Long's (1996) views of input as providing positive evidence of L2 form, encoding message meaning. According to Pica, Long emphasized the need for input made comprehensible through modified interactions. Pica further argues for additional evidence that affords noticing of L2 forms, including enhanced input, abundant or repeated use of linguistic elements, called flooding, and negative evidence, such as explicit instruction and explicit or implicit corrective feedback. Inherent to Krashen's input hypothesis is the notion of learner

readiness. Pica (2013) maintains that *learner readiness* concerns input that is optimal for the learner's developmental level, affording the incorporation of positive and negative evidence for restructuring interlanguage. With regard to learner readiness, Pica supports Pienemann's Processability Theory, which predicts cross-linguistically the syntactic structures that a learner is ready to process at different developmental stages. Ellis and Shintani (2014) support Long's (1996) interaction hypothesis, identifying negotiation of meaning as an affordance for L2 acquisition. They further maintain that Long revised his original version of this hypothesis to include the mediational role of selective attention and the learner's processing capacity during negotiation for meaning. Pointing out that processing theories mainly focus on language comprehension and comprehensible input, Ortega maintains the importance of pushed output in terms of Swain's (1985) output hypothesis, holding that language production plays a role in drawing learners' attention to the form needed for conveying meaning. (The role of pushed output and noticing in L2 learning is further discussed in section 7.2.1 and 7.3, considering the role of task design and teacher's intervention.)

With regard to language output or production, Levelt's speech production model has been influential in explaining L2 development and the use of attentional resources during L2 production (Skehan, 1996, Skehan, Xiaoyue, Qian and Wang, 2012). Levelt's (1998) theory of speaking was developed to describe L1 production and processing, but components of Levelt's blueprint for the speaker (1998:9) are used in reference to SLA (Ellis and Shintani, 2014, Thompson, 2013). Levelt describes the conceptualizer that generates the message content. Explicit encyclopedic and implicit situational knowledge provide input during the conceptualizer stage. Thompson (2013) maintains that in L2 use, background languages impact on conceptualization of the message. (See section 3.3.3 for a discussion of cross-linguistic transfer in multilinguals.) According to Levelt the speaker may monitor and alter the preverbal message generated by the conceptualizer. Next, Levelt's speech model presents the formulator, which generates the surface structure and phonetic plan to transform the preverbal message into internal speech. Levelt states that internal speech is also monitored by the speech comprehension system. Ellis and Shintani (2014) maintain the important monitoring role of explicit L2 knowledge. (See section 4.2.2 for a discussion of implicit and explicit knowledge). The phonetic plan is executed to produce overt speech by the articulator. According to Levelt's (1998) blueprint, overt speech is subjected to audition and monitored by the speech comprehension system.

A controversial construct in L2 processing theories is *intake*, as it pertains to the fundamental process of noticing. According to Leow (2014), intake is an intermediate stage of input processing, and makes linguistic data available for further processing. Referring to the differing viewpoints of Tomlin and Villa (1994), Schmidt (1993) and Robinson (1995), Leow (2014) maintains that the amount of attention needed for input to become intake is the contested issue. The differences in amount and nature of attention involved in learning can be illustrated on a noticing continuum ranging from detection, awareness, focal attention to memory. (The process of noticing is discussed further in section 4.4.4.) The notion of attention is related to what Ortega (2009) describes as a limited capacity model of information processing. Ortega distinguishes between automatic processing, which takes up few cognitive resources, and controlled processing, which is self-regulated, and requires more effort and cognitive resources. Ortega describes learning with controlled attention as explicit learning, while learning without controlled attention is implicit learning. According to Rebuschat (2014), the process of acquiring knowledge about language without intending to, and without awareness, was first described as implicit learning by Reber (1967). (Implicit learning is analyzed further in section 4.2.2.) A central construct in cognitive processing is *memory*. Ortega maintains that working memory is a limited storage and processing capacity, which handles automatic and controlled processing. Referring to Engle's (2002) notion that attention controls the memory capacity by maintaining and suppressing information, Ortega (2009) further maintains that working memory processing is dynamic. She posits that working memory can heighten the activation levels of input in working memory through rehearsal. Maintaining that acquisition takes place when a form, activated in working memory, is subsequently integrated, and, thereby, changes in the long term-memory, Ellis and Shintani (2014) conclude that intake is not acquisition. (In figure 2.1, the affordances theory, which does not directly explain the internal processing mechanisms, presents intake as noticed input matching a learner's processing mechanism, but acquisition is only established in observing the learner's actions displaying evidence of uptake.)

Ortega (2009) explains long-term memory in terms of mental representation. She describes a cognitive view of long-term memory as the mostly unlimited storage capacity of explicit-declarative knowledge and implicit-procedural knowledge. According to Ortega (2009), linguistic knowledge representation includes grammatical, lexical and schematic knowledge. Ortega distinguishes lexical representation according to strength, in accordance with the degree of proceduralization in implicit memory, and according to depth, which includes both implicit and explicit knowledge about the meaning and form of a word. Nassaji (2014) defines *schema*

as the generic knowledge structures of stored information that is used to acquire and interpret new information. Lyster and Sato (2013) maintain that declarative knowledge is explicit mental representations of language items, such as definitions and rules, whereas procedural knowledge represents the knowing how to perform cognitive operations that can only be acquired through actions. Ortega (2009) refers to Bialystok and Sharwood Smith's (1985) work on the Skill Acquisition Theory, defining learning as the gradual transformation from controlled to automatic. This process is referred to as proceduralization or *automatization*. According to Lyster and Sato (2013), the Skill Acquisition Theory posits that declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge are accommodated within two interrelated representational systems. Advancing that declarative knowledge can be transformed into procedural knowledge through meaningful practice and feedback, they maintain the importance of contextualized practice for L2 learning. Lyster and Sato further maintain that automatization involves restructuring of existing knowledge. Pointing out that through practice declarative or explicit knowledge converts into procedural or implicit knowledge, Ortega (2009) posits that in terms of the Skills Acquisition Theory, all knowledge, even skills, start as explicit-declarative knowledge, and that through practice, a qualitative change occurs in the knowledge representation in the long-term memory.

In summary, this section describes important concepts and essential cognitive components involved in L2 processing. Comprehensible input is directly related to learner readiness, whereas the need for additional evidence depends on the complexity of input. (Noticing and complexity in L2 learning are analyzed further in sections 4.4.4 and 4.4.3, respectively.) Interaction and pushed output afford noticing by distributing attention controlling working memory capacity. Processing theories view acquisition as the incorporation and restructuring of language knowledge in the long-term memory. Real time performance without controlled attention relies on implicit knowledge, resulting from implicit learning and the automatization of more complex controlled learning.

3.2.3.2.2 Usage-based cognitive approaches

Usage-based cognitive perspectives inform this study, describing the function of context in form-meaning-use mapping during L2 learning (Keck and Kim, 2014). Additionally, task repetition in task-based teaching, recycling task procedures and language input, including formulaic language, is motivated and explained from a usage-based perspective. (See sections 5.5, 7.2 and 7.4 for pedagogic applications of usage-based cognitive approaches.)

Ellis (1998) critiques Universal Grammar for analyzing language in isolation. Ellis (2008b) maintains that consciousness, neural functioning and the social environment are inextricably linked in language learning and use. In 1976, Hatch and Wagner-Gough proposed the Frequency Hypothesis, which claimed that learning is primarily exemplar-based (Ortega, 2009). According to Ortega, the difficulty in explaining L2 learning from a general cognitive approach results from the fast expanding collection of new theories and methods to inspect the human brain, in relation to the rate at which SLA researchers are able to consolidate, apply and confirm these (2009:82). Ortega further maintains the narrow scope of language related behavioural and neurobiological evidence regarding performance data, pointing out that it is based on observations ranging between a few hundred milliseconds to, maximum, a few hours.

With the continually improving methods for investigating the mechanisms of the mind, cognitive science is able to take a neural perspective on L2 learning. Onnis (2014) describes a connectionists' view that explains learning through the synaptic connectivity in the brain, which is mimicked in the neurons, grouped together in nodes. A set of nodes represents linguistic information, such as sound, syllables, morphemes and words. Ellis (2008b) states that connectionist models neurologically explain language as input-meaning mappings, with the activation of different neurons decided by stimuli that the context provide, representing contextualized meaning. According to Onnis (2014), connectionist models describe learning as input-output mappings that develop into systematic knowledge, which is distributed over the set of nodes and connections across the whole neural network.

Neuroimaging is broadly defined as techniques used to view the structures and functioning of the nervous system in SLA (Carpenter, 2014). In an overview of neuroimaging used in SLA, Carpenter (2014) lists computed tomography, which uses x-rays, magnetic resonance imaging, which uses magnets to produce photo-like images of most parts of the brain, magnetoencephalography, which enables the measuring of magnetic fields created during brain activity, positron emission tomography, which measures blood flow, glucose metabolism and neurotransmitter activity in the brain, and electroencephalography, which describes timing and intensity of neuronal electrical signals. Sabourin, Brien and Tremblay (2013) discuss the important contributions of event-related brain potential research, which is based on electroencephalography results, describing cognitive L2 processing that occurs at the level of milliseconds. Significantly, recent findings indicated that age of acquisition is less relevant than topology and L2 proficiency for L2 acquisition (Sabourin, Brien and Tremblay, 2013:236).

(In section 4.2.1 factors relating to age of onset, rate of acquisition and L2 proficiency are analyzed.)

A growing interest in language corpora, afforded by specialized software and computer technology, is supported by usage-based approaches in SLA. According to Ortega (2009), an emergentism approach considers the associative, probabilistic and usage-based nature of L2 acquisition. Ellis, Brook O'Donnel and Römer, (2013) maintain that what is learnable in language relies on the same simple cognitive constraints and learning mechanisms as all other experience, specifically visual and motor perceptual experiences, sensitive to commonalities presented with frequency of usage. Ortega (2009) explains that associative learning is the statistical extraction, according to frequency and the sequential properties of language exemplars, from the input. Describing corpus linguistics as analyzing language patterns in terms of lexis together with syntax, within actual language usage, Ellis (1998) maintains that corpus linguistics and connectionism provide valuable tools for investigating hypotheses regarding the emergence of language representations. Supporting the importance of language corpora as important language research and instructional tools, Timmis (2010) identifies large computerized databases of spoken language (corpora), providing information on the frequency in language usage.

Discussing the abstractions of regularities in language input, Ellis and Larsen-Freeman (2006) distinguish between type frequency and token frequency in. They describe type frequency as the number of lexical items which can be replaced in a specific linguistic construction. Ellis, Brook O'Donnel and Römer, (2013) point out that type frequency is significant for determining productivity. (See sections 4.4.2.3 and 6.1 for further discussions and applications of the construct of productivity for measuring lexical complexity and language development.) Ellis and Larsen-Freeman (2006) describe token frequency as the number of times a specific word or phrase occurs.

Ellis (1998) maintains that connectionist language is rule-like, but not rule-governed. Ortega (2009) describes probabilistic learning as subconscious inferences, based on previous experience, representing uncertainty and ambiguity. Ellis (1998) argues that regularities is extracted from complex, input-rich social environments, while complex language representations emerge through simple excitatory and inhibitory neural processes. Maintaining that language is a dynamic, complex system, Ellis (2008b) describes language learning as systematicities emerging and adapting in accordance with the implicit tallying and chunking

during language use, and in response, the learning again changes language use. This view describes a similar relationship of dynamic mutuality explained in the affordances theory (see section 2.2.2). Ellis and Freeman (2006) distinguish between competence as the integrated sum of previous language use, and performance as the dynamic contextualized activation of competence. They assert that language knowledge is not static representations, but that language representation is exemplar-based, with dynamic processing involving the mutual influence of inter-related types of information activating and inhibiting each other over time. Ellis and Freeman support a complexity and dynamic systems perspective of language emergence. (Dynamic systems is discussed as part of social approaches to L2 learning in section 3.2.2.)

Summarizing this section, cognitive approaches regard language as knowledge. A generative approach considers language knowledge as an innate competence that is situated in a language-dedicated module of the mind, determining language structure and use. On the other hand, general cognitive processing perspectives on language learning investigate language access and neuro-cognitive processing mechanisms resulting in language representation in the mind. Different theories regarding language input, output, intake, memory and use provide insight into the general learning processes and mechanisms involved in language development.

3.2.4 The Cognition Hypothesis and the affordances theory

The Cognition Hypothesis is motivated from a cognitive language processing perspective, and supported by general cognitive language learning theories, but its focus is the manipulation of task design features creating external language affordances in terms of complexity. Robinson (2010) maintains that acquiring complex knowledge or skills depends on scaffolded learner attempts by means of task sequence and teacher support. (See section 7.2 and 7.3 for a further discussion of task design and teacher intervention affording noticing in task-based teaching.) According to Kim (2012) the Cognition Hypothesis is grounded in the cognitive and interactive perspectives of task research. The Cognition Hypothesis originates in research on task complexity, which was first conducted by Robinson in 1995 (Robinson, 1995). Robinson (2005b) states that the Cognition Hypothesis complements and extends Krashen's Input Hypothesis and Long's Interaction Hypothesis. He argues that the effects of comprehensible input and negotiation of meaning on language acquisition will be maximized, when tasks are sequenced and performed with increasing complexity. Supporting the Cognition Hypothesis in

task-based syllabus design, the affordances theory motivates task complexity as an affordance for language development.

The Cognition Hypothesis presents a cognitive-motivated rationale for task-based syllabi design. Robinson (2010) maintains that sequencing tasks for optimal task-based L2 language use and learning opportunities affords cumulative learning. According to Ishikawa (2014), the Cognition Hypothesis theorizes that in task-based syllabi, pedagogic tasks should be sequenced only on the basis of cognitive complexity, whereby learners are most favourably supported in their attempts, developing their abilities to approximate target performances, dealing with real-world target task demands. Robinson and Gilabert (2007) state that the Cognition Hypothesis, provides a theoretically motivated task taxonomic system, namely the Triadic Componential Framework, with a descriptively sufficient scope of task variables for developing task-based syllabi. Robinson (2005b) supports the Cognition Hypothesis with claims and findings in cognitive linguistics, L1 development, differential and cognitive psychology, and cognition and development.

Task-based research findings inform the Cognition Hypothesis, supporting its basic claims regarding task performance with more complex task design features. Robinson (2011b) points out that research on task design describes how learner production is effected in terms of fluency, accuracy and complexity. Task-based research indicates that task design features and teacher intervention promote the quantity and quality of learner interaction, which affords L2 learning. (See section 5.3 for a further discussion of research findings relating to task design.) Robinson further maintains that task-based research illustrates how motivation and cognitive individual differences influence task performance. Robinson (2010) posits that a complementary match between learner abilities, interest, motivation and task demands affords L2 development through task-based learning. Robinson and Gilabert (2007) propose that the Cognition Hypothesis makes three fundamental claims and predictions about the effects of task complexity on learners' task performance. Firstly, regarding language production, learners are pushed to greater accuracy and complexity in order to meet the communicative demands. Secondly, regarding interaction and uptake, it claims that increased interactive demands afford heightened attention, noticing and use of forms presented in the input, or made salient in premodified input. Thirdly, individual differences interact with task complexity factors, influencing learners' perceptions of task difficulty, manifesting in increasingly differentiated L2 performances and learning outcomes with increased task complexity. Investigating these claims Robinson (2007) found that increasing cognitive and conceptual demands of tasks in

terms of reasoning about the intentions of others effected speech production, by affording more accurate and more complex, but less fluent speech production. Operationalizing uptake in terms of the incorporation of negative feedback, such as on-line recasts, and forms presented in premodified materials for supporting task performance, Robinson also found that increased task complexity afforded more language learning opportunities by means of greater interaction and uptake.

Robinson (2005b) describes the information-processing attentional demands of tasks by distinguishing between performance and developmental dimensions. Robinson identifies the performance dimensions of task complexity making procedural demands during task performance. He proposes how the performance dimension can be manipulated through resource dispersing variables, so as to increase the demands made on accessing current interlanguage knowledge, during real time L2 performance. Robinson maintains that practice and the dispersion of attentional and memory resources along these performative dimensions, afford automatization of controlled knowledge. Robinson (2005b) further maintains that conditions for L2 development can be created by manipulating task complexity increasing conceptual and linguistic demands on communication. Such developmental dimensions of task complexity direct learners' attention to forms needed in order to meet the communicative demands, and push learners to access declarative knowledge in the long-term memory. Robinson advances that sequencing tasks in terms of increased task complexity along these performance and developmental dimensions, affords synergistic interaction between explicit and implicit knowledge.

The dimensions of task complexity in the Cognition Hypothesis are based on functional and conceptual development sequences in L1 development. Robinson (2005b) posits that the sequence of conceptual development during childhood presents a natural order for sequencing conceptual and linguistic demands of L2 tasks. Robinson (2005b) argues that L1 development of temporal expression, spatial location and navigation illustrate the resource directing dimension of here-and-now followed by the more complex dimension of there-and-then. He supports complex reasoning variables with reference to L1 development of psychological state terms, evolving from physiological, to emotional, to expressing desire, describing reasoning development from stating facts, to supporting interpretations with reasons, to reasoning about other people's intentions and beliefs. According to Robinson, the Cognition Hypothesis proposes that such ontogenetically motivated, incremental changes in task complexity afford optimum contexts for L2 development. The Cognition Hypothesis analyzes adult L2

instructional sequences, based on the cognitive developmental sequences of L1 children. Robinson (2005b) maintains that adult L2 learners, who are already familiar with these concepts and linguistic forms in their L1, can meet the increasingly complex communicative demands in the task sequence by seeking and perceiving the L2 code aspects required. Supporting this notion, Van den Branden (2006) refers to people's everyday functioning as using language to perform tasks that naturally evoke a wide diversity of cognitive operations. Van den Branden supports Robinson's (2001) view that such cognitive demands are part of the factors determining task complexity.

Assuming cognitive maturity, the Cognition Hypothesis does not make any direct claims regarding the developing cognitive and linguistic faculties of children. However, conceding the differences in language use for real life functioning of adults as compared to children, the same principles apply regarding everyday tasks demanding cognitive operations to be conceptualized in language code. The inextricable link between children's cognitive, emotional, social and language development is explored in SLA literature (Dimroth, 2008, Hughes, 2010, Nicholas and Lightbown, 2008, Philp and Duchesne, 2008, Philp, Mackey and Oliver, 2008, and Tomlinson, 2013). Hughes argues that tasks, which support general cognition and development, afford motivation and language development in children. She also points out the importance of language for the cognitive development of children. Philp, Mackey and Oliver (2008) differentiate between early childhood, when children are unable to think logically or understand the viewpoints of others, middle childhood, when children start to think more logically through access to a highly developed L1, while also acquiring greater metalinguistic awareness, however, not yet abstract in thinking, and early adolescence, when L2 learners have a greater capacity for abstract thought, including metalinguistic awareness and language analysis, and for the consolidation of their socio-cognitive abilities. Discussing Piaget's cognitive developmental stages, Heo, Han, Koch and Aydin (2011) maintain that understanding of causation is an important construct developing during the formal operation stage (11 years and older), yet, that this is not accomplished by all adolescence. Supporting Newport's (1990) view on the state of cognitive development, described as a critical parameter changing from toddler to adult with age-related differences in perception and memory capacity, Dimroth (2008) points out the implicated consequences for language processing, resulting in procedural and declarative knowledge representations of input properties (2008:63). These motivational and cognitive differences between adults and children are regarded as significant factors for the

application of the Cognition Hypothesis in a task-based syllabus for young language learners, and are analyzed further in section 5.5.3.

The Cognition Hypothesis with its theoretical applications, mainly including the Triadic Componential Framework and the SSARC model for task classification and task sequencing, constitute an efficient tool for task design and lesson planning in TBLT. Robinson (2010) describes the cognitive factors relating to developmental dimensions (resource-directing variables) and performance dimensions (resource-dispersing variables) in his Triadic Componential Framework for task classification (Robinson and Gilabert, 2007). The resource-directing variables, which make cognitive or conceptual demands, include +/- here and now, +/- few elements, +/- spatial, causal and intentional reasoning and +/- perspective-taking. The resource-dispersing variables, which make performative or procedural demands, include +/- planning time, +/- single task, +/- few steps, +/- independency of steps, and +/- prior knowledge. Robinson (2010) proposes two instructional design principles for task-based syllabus design to afford deep, semantic processing and new form-function mappings, as well as affording automatization of the current interlanguage system. The first principle states that tasks should be sequenced according to their intrinsic conceptual and cognitive complexity. Therefore, tasks can be replicated in terms of required interactive demands, with the relevant schema needed, so as to afford rehearsal in memory and deep semantic processing. The second principle states that each pedagogic version of the repeated task should be increased in cognitive complexity along the suggested developmental and performative dimensions of the Triadic Componential Framework. Robinson (2010) describes the simple, stable, automatization, restructuring and complexity (SSARC) model for the recycling of tasks. Learners firstly perform a task that is simple on all the relevant parameters of task demands, as to draw on the simple, stable (SS) current interlanguage system. Next, complexity in the resource-dispersing dimensions is increased to afford automatization (A) of the current interlanguage system. Following an increase in resource-dispersing dimensions, complexity is increased on resource-directing dimensions to afford restructuring (R) of the current interlanguage system. Finally, Robinson considers maximum complexity (C) to destabilize the current interlanguage system and to afford L2 development by increasing both resource-dispersing and resource-directing dimensions. The Cognition Hypothesis with its instructional task design principles and the SSARC model for task sequencing are applied to target communicative tasks for young beginner learners of isiXhosa additional language in primary school intermediate phase, analyzing complexity in task design in chapter 6.

In summary, the Cognition Hypothesis is grounded in a cognitive perspective on language processing and theoretical findings within task-based language teaching. (Task-based language teaching is discussed further in chapter 5.) The Cognition Hypothesis claims that increased complexity in the conceptual-functional requirements of tasks will lead to increased complexity and accuracy in L2 performance, while practice affords real-time access and greater control of knowledge. Robinson's Triadic Componential Framework presents classification criteria for tasks in terms of interactive factors that compare to real-world task demands, which is held constant during task recycling, allowing learners to become familiar with the task context and schematic knowledge, providing learners with interactional support during their attempts to meet the increasingly complex communicative task demands (Robinson, 2005b, 2010). Robinson (2010) maintains that individual differences in low cognitive abilities and affective factors interact with task demands, presenting negative language affordances. (In section 4.2.2 of the next chapter, language aptitude is discussed in terms of affective and cognitive internal learner factors, constituting positive or negative individual language affordances.) In this study, age is considered a critical parameter that determines learners' cognitive, emotional and language development. (The critical age hypothesis and its implications for language learning are discussed in section 4.2.1.) The Cognition Hypothesis is applied to task-based syllabus design for child L2 development in chapter 6.

To summarize this section, it is argued that social and cognitive approaches to SLA make explicit diverse complex phenomena of L2 acquisition from different perspectives, using distinctly appropriate research methodology and measures. Robinson (2005a) refers to cognitive levels working up from cognitive processing abilities to personality traits and conative factors, or working down to a subcomputational, physical level of neural functioning. A cognitive, language processing perspective investigates the processes and mechanisms of L2 access and knowledge. On the other hand, social approaches investigate observable processes and relationships in the learning context to identify language affordances. The Cognition Hypothesis advances that a cyclic task presentation, with an increasingly cognitive complex task sequence, which is supported by increasingly familiar task-particular interactional demands, affords optimal L2 development. A dynamic view of individual language affordances, in terms of dynamic language ability and aptitude relying on cognitive and affective factors, complements a Cognition Hypothesis predicting differentiated individual learner performances, in a framework for sequencing task-based syllabi with increasing complexity, supporting cumulative learning.

3.3 MULTILINGUAL STUDIES

This study aims at promoting multilingualism by investigating relevant literature, and consolidating current perspectives and research findings relating to language development in multilinguals, informing L2 learning theory and L2 learning and teaching practices in societies where linguistic diversity is expanding. Supporting the claims of the Cognition Hypothesis, it considers language aptitude to be a highly individual and dynamic learner factor, impacting on L2 development resulting from task complexity. Exploring different theories and research findings within multilingual studies permits a multilingual view of language learning, advancing valid measures of L2 development.

Multilingual studies and research into multilingualism policies and practices are very prominent in current SLA literature (Aronin and Singleton, 2010b, Aronin and Bawardi, 2012, Aronin, ÓLaoire and Singleton, 2011, Barac and Bialystok, 2011, Cenoz, 2013a, 2013b, Cenoz and Gorter, 2017, Corcoll, 2013, De Klerk, 2006, Dewaele, 2010, Falk and Bordel, 2010, Hammarberg, 2010, 2014, Heugh, 2013, Higgins and Ponte, 2017, Hornberger, 2009, Jessner, 2008, Kinzler, Shutts and Spelke, 2012, Komorowska, 2010, 2014, Lanvers, 2011, Otwinowska and De Angelis, 2014a, Pfenninger, 2014, Rast, 2010, Thompson, 2013, Tsang, 2014, Unsworth, 2013, Van den Noort, Struys, Kim, Bosch, Mondt, Van Kralingen, Lee and Van de Craen, 2014). Hammarberg (2010) attributes this eminent interest in multilingualism to the general acceptance of multilingualism as the default state of language competence, prompting the search for an adequate theory for language competence, use and acquisition reflecting this view. Referring to records of translations and transmissions of learning dating back to the Middle Ages, Cenoz (2013a) posits that multilingualism is not a recent phenomenon. However, maintaining that this phenomenon has become more visible due to geographical, social and technological factors, Cenoz argues that globalization has increased the value of multilingualism. Aronin and Bawardi (2012) advance that due to contemporary global and sociolinguistic conditions, sets of languages, and not individual languages, perform functions of communication, cognition and identity for individuals, as well as for global communities.

Multilingualism realizes as a complex and dynamic state of language competence and use in societies and individuals. Jessner (2008) refers to Herdina and Jessner's (2002) dynamic systems theory model of multilingualism to support her claims regarding the complexity and diversity in multilinguals. Herdina and Jessner's model of multilingualism defines individual multilingual proficiency as the dynamic, non-additive, non-linear interaction between

psychological and social factors, represented in the psycholinguistic systems of different interlanguage systems, with cross-linguistic influences and the multilingualism factor. The latter is defined as an emerging affordance for language acquisition in multilinguals. These dynamic, complex processes contribute to the conceptual and terminological challenges facing multilingual studies. In the following section, third language acquisition (TLA), as a distinct scientific discipline, is firstly analysed, followed by more general conceptual issues regarding multilingualism. When multilingualism is accepted as the default state of language competence in modern society, then SLA studies share a context of research and common conceptual challenges with the fields of multilingualism and TLA, albeit with a different research focus.

3.3.1 Third language learning

The field of Third Language Acquisition has established itself as a specialized discipline gaining prominence in linguistic and applied linguistic research (Cenoz, 2013a, 2013b, Hammarberg, 2010, Rast, 2010, Tsang, 2014). TLA studies often overlap and share an interests in general language use and acquisition phenomena with multilingualism and bilingualism. A discussion of these separate, but relating concepts supports a fuller understanding of the unique contributions within each of these fields of study, providing insight into the complex phenomenon of language learning and use. Describing the particular focus of Third Language Acquisition (TLA) research, Cenoz (2013b) lists factors and processes effecting language development, including cross-linguistic influence and the influence of bilingualism or prior linguistic knowledge on TLA. A holistic view is proposed for studying and measuring multiple language learning (Aronin and Singleton, 2010b, Cenoz, 2013b, Gorter and Cenoz, 2017).

L3 learning and bilingualism are sometimes subsumed within the field of multilingualism, however, due to the greater diversity existing within multilingualism, it presents a much broader field than TLA. Cenoz (2013a) articulates the diversity of multilingualism in terms of the dimensions of individual as compared to social multilingualism, proficiency and use, and bilingualism as compared to multilingualism. When Aronin and Bawardi (2012) analyze social and individual multilingualism, they include bilingualism within multilingualism. Maintaining a more social perspective, they define multilingualism as the acquisition and use of two or more languages. Aronin and Singleton (2010b) support a holistic view of bilingualism, asserting that multilinguals are more than the sum of two or more monolinguals. Ortega's (2009) description of individual bilingualism assumes a cognitive approach, placing a higher premium on the level of proficiency and use. Defining *bilingualism* as a study of dual first language acquisition

during early childhood, Ortega expresses particular interest in the representation of these distinct language systems in the brain. Unsworth (2013) further distinguishes simultaneous bilinguals, acquiring both languages within one month after birth, from early successive bilinguals who have an age of onset between the first and third year of life. Cenoz (2013a) suggests that recent developments in multilingual research focus more on the cognitive outcomes of language acquisition and on multilingual language processing. Studies by Pfenninger (2013) and Tsang (2014) compare bilinguals to multilinguals, illustrating the positive effect of prior language knowledge and language learning experience on language learning.

Multilingualism is considered a positive affordance for interpersonal communication and cognitive development (see section 2.2.4.2.). However, Jessner (2008) argues that a long-standing Western tradition of prejudice towards bilinguals still persists in the attitudes of many Europeans. Hammarberg (2010) explains that when monolingualism is considered the norm, then the L2 is perceived as an extra language, and SLA becomes the study of additional languages. Such attitudes view bilinguals as less competent multiple monolinguals. According to Jessner, despite numerous studies indicating differently, the dual acquisition of multiple languages during childhood is incorrectly believed to have a negative effect on children's cognitive development. She cites Bailystok's (2001) study illustrating a bilingual's increased ability to perform tasks that require select attention. More recently, Barac and Bailystok (2011) advanced that learning two languages during childhood changes the way children think about language. They maintain that bilingual children have superior metalinguistic insights and executive cognitive functioning supporting attention, selection, inhibition, shifting and flexibility. However, Jessner (2008) points out that Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis (1991) advances a certain level of proficiency to be obtained in languages before cognitive advantages, such as heightened level of metalinguistic awareness, creative and divergent thinking, communicative sensitivity, and further language learning are manifested. Although the optimal threshold is not specified, it is reasonable to argue that differences in proficiency and language use would impress differently on the language and cognitive affordances stemming from bi/multilingualism. Supporting this notion, Cenoz (2013a, 2013b) distinguishes between early bilinguals, active bilinguals, and balanced and unbalanced bilinguals based on differences in language use and proficiency.

L3 learning is also subsumed within L2 learning studies, however, L3 research investigates particular issues relating to multiple language learning. Hammarberg (2010) maintains that

when complex issues regarding the number of languages and the acquisition order of the languages of a multilingual are not of direct relevance to a research study, then it is appropriate to refer to multilingual learners as L2 learners. On the other hand, motivating the importance of the TLA discipline, Hammarberg maintains the qualitative differences in the mechanisms and processes of first language, second language and third language acquisition. He describes L2 learning as pertaining to languages learnt after the first, native languages, and argues that second language learning implicates a more complex language background. With reference to Hofeisen's (1998) views, Hammarberg includes L1 knowledge, life experience and general learning strategies as involved in L2 learning. He points out that, additionally, L3 learning includes experiences of learning a non-native language. Hammarberg maintains that multilingualism beyond L3 learning does not involve qualitative differences in the acquisition process, although he concedes a quantitative positive effect existing in relation to the number of prior language learning experiences and language knowledge. Dmitrenko's (2017) study of the language learning strategies of adult multilinguals supports this view. Hammarberg further maintains that studies in third language acquisition regard individual differences based on differences in linguistic background as significant. Hammarberg advances that within this specific research paradigm, the third language (L3) is a language currently learnt or used, while L1 and L2 are considered the permanent background languages. Jessner (2008) supports these views, and points out that the L2 learner is a beginner in the language learning process of a second language or first foreign language. Instead, the L3 learner already has experience in the learning process, including L2 learning experience, explicit or subconscious foreign language learning strategies, as well as interlanguages of other learnt languages. Studies in L3 acquisition, such as Rast's (2010), which investigates the role of cross linguistic influences in the beginning stages, and Tsang's (2014), which investigates the effect of L3 learning on cross-linguistic awareness in the L1 and L2, support this perspective. These and other research studies investigating cross-linguistic transfer are discussed in section 3.3.3.

Cenoz (2013b) advances a holistic approach to studying bilingualism and multilingualism that considers the multilingual's different languages and properties of the particular languages interacting, the multilingual's proficiency in every languages and the context of language learning and language use. She argues that the multilingual speaker has a broader linguistic repertoire in terms of language structures, vocabulary and language functions. Cenoz maintains that due to the dynamic interaction between the languages of the multilingual, it is impossible to investigate one language at a time. Pointing out that language competence is inextricably

related to language use and the effect of prior linguistic knowledge, she proposes that it is necessary to consider the whole linguistic repertoire of the multilingual. Cenoz places active bilinguals and foreign language users on opposite sides of a continuum for proficiency and use. The context of learning and multilingual practices is the third component of Cenoz's holistic approach to multilingual studies. She describes multilingual communicative practices resulting from the context, including communicative strategies, code switching, when languages are alternated, and code mixing, when language codes are intermingled in one speech turn. Cenoz (2013a) contrasts this holistic view with an atomistic study of languages as discreet, fixed and independent entities that views code switching and code mixing as indicating a lack of competence.

In summary, third language learning is conceptualized with reference to multilingualism and bilingualism. This study regards *multilingualism* as the social and individual phenomenon of using and knowing more than one language. However, maintaining a cognitive perspective on L3 learning, it is concerned with language knowledge and language processing, regarding all existing linguistic knowledge, learning experiences and background languages as inextricably part of the cognitive processing mechanism, and influencing the language learning process (see figure 2.1, section 2.2.5). (In section 4.4.2.2 these views are applied within the instructional language learning setting invoking a holistic view of multilingualism advancing a multilingual model for measuring language development.) A dynamic view of individual internal language affordances in task-based learning evoking the Cognition Hypothesis considers differences in terms of a developing language proficiency and the number of background languages as interacting with task complexity factors, affecting individual learners' perception of task difficulty. (See section 3.2.4 for an account of task difficulty in accordance with the Cognition Hypothesis.) In this study the terms *second language (L2)* and *second language learning* are used to refer to any language learnt after infancy. While regarding the importance of the specific properties of the background languages of the individual learner, this general reference to L2 learning is preferred so as to avoid the complexity of background language composition and the complex issues regarding acquisition order that can only be determined for individual L2 learners. In the following two sections (3.3.2 and 3.3.3), these multilingual complexities will be investigated and described briefly, supporting the multilingual model for measuring individual language development in the instructional setting, which is explored in section 4.4 of the following chapter.

3.3.2 Conceptual challenges in multilingual studies

In the previous section, definitions for the concepts *multilingualism* and *second language learning* are presented and motivated with regard to this study. However, definitions and use of terms, such as multilingualism, bilingualism, second language acquisition, third language acquisition and foreign language learning, depend on the research objective. Cenoz (2013b) points out that research in multilingualism does not necessarily focus on language acquisition, whereas SLA and TLA are specifically interested in the acquisition of languages other than the native language(s). Different conceptualizations of terminology in SLA and related fields of research present challenges for the development of a scientific discipline. An analysis of the factors contributing to conceptual diversity in language learning studies describing first, second, third and foreign language learning, including age, learning contexts, cognition and proficiency, identifies existing conceptual difficulties (Cenoz, 2013a, Hammarberg, 2010, 2014).

The interchangeable use of concepts, for instance non-native language, second language and additional language, is common in multilingual studies, however, these concepts reflect different perspectives on the nature of language and language acquisition. General references to a native and non-native language distinguish the language(s) that was acquired from birth from languages acquired subsequently. Hammarberg (2014) states that the native language is often equated to the first language (L1), while a non-native language is also referred to as the second language (L2). This form of distinction between L1 and L2 is done according to the time dimension. Hammarberg maintains that alternative dimensions for distinguishing between a person's L1 and L2 include a proficiency dimension, a dimension of use or the dimension of subjective identification. In section 2.3.1, subjective identification was described with reference to the use of different language nominations, explained as a function of the diversity of societal multilingualism. Ortega (2009) describes the concept of *mother tongue* as referring to the L1 acquired during the critical formative years, starting during gestation, while *additional language* or L2 refers to any language, whether second, third or fourth, that is acquired thereafter. Ortega points out that the L1-L2 distinction implies a monolingual bias, which compares the L2 learner to monolinguals with regard to proficiency and performance. Conversely, Ortega maintains that the processes and knowledge representations in the multilingual or bilingual mind are qualitatively different to that of the monolingual. A number of researchers have rejected a view of distinct L1 and L2 knowledge systems, along with the assumption of homogeneity of language knowledge across speakers and context (Cenoz, 2013b,

Cook, 2015, and Hall, Cheng and Carlson, 2006). Instead, they argue for a holistic view of the language competencies within the bilingual or multilingual speaker.

Presenting a social perspective, an express distinction between languages learnt in a naturalistic setting and languages learnt in the instructional settings is motivated by Housen, Schoonjans, Janssens, Welcomme, Schoonheere and Pierrard (2011). They maintain that within naturalistic settings, language learning progresses largely implicitly, whereas in the instructional setting, language acquisition depends mainly on explicit language processing. Cenoz (2013b) further distinguishes language learning within the instructional context, pointing out that depending on the context, a L2 could refer to a foreign language that is only studied for a few hours a week, or the language of instruction (i.e. the LoLT), or the L2 learnt could be the majority language in a community. Housen, Schoonjans, Janssens, Welcomme, Schoonheere and Pierrard propose a classification of language learning, including second language learning and foreign language learning, with particular regard for the learning context as determining the quantity and quality of exposure that the language learner is afforded. They argue that foreign language learning generally only affords input and interaction at curricular level, while the second language is learnt in a context where the target language generally plays a more prominent social role. They further maintain that the more prominent the social role of the L2 in the learning context, the greater the amount of exposure to the TL, and the more learning opportunities are afforded in terms of quantity and variety of input and output types. This includes using the L2 as LoLT for some or all content subjects, in different grades at school.

From a cognitive perspective, the complexity of multilingualism regards different language learning processes and mechanisms, pertaining to multiple languages with varying statuses and dynamic competencies in one mind. Hammarberg (2010) maintains that a linear, chronological scale indicating L1, L2, L3, L4, Lⁿ is a flawed and an inadequate representation of multilingualism. He describes variables that contribute to the variety and complexity in multilingualism, including simultaneous acquisition, partial or type knowledge, discontinuous or alternating acquisition and bonus languages. The latter refers to languages that are typologically close enough to afford receptive competence. Instead, Hammarberg (2014) advances a cognitive-based distinction between the languages acquired during infancy and those acquired after infancy, stressing cognitive maturity regulating the perceptual and language learning processes. These issues are discussed further with reference to studies investigating the age of onset and the ultimate attainment, in section 4.2.1. Supporting TLA studies for investigating multilingualism and language acquisition, Hammarberg (2010) argues

that L3 studies present a more accurate account of the diversity and complexity of language knowledge, considering learners' background languages' knowledge, as is illustrated in studies of cross-linguistic transfer (see the following section 3.3.3).

In summary, although *second language learning* is conceptualized as the acquisition of any non-native language, there are important factors that differentiate L2 learning processes, including learning context, cognitive maturity, proficiency and TL use, contributing to the complexity and diversity existing within multilingualism. The relevance of the concepts *foreign language learning* and *third language learning*, for this study, pertains to research objectives investigating particular cognitive or contextual factors and conditions, most importantly including affordances created by cumulative previous multi-language experience, resulting in cognitive language knowledge, and by the quantity and quality exposure to language input, determined by the learning context.

3.3.3 Cross-linguistic influence

Cross-linguistic influence investigating the role of previous language knowledge in TL use and L2 learning processes is of particular interest in current multilingual and third language acquisition studies. However, Ortega (2009) recognizes language transfer or cross-linguistic influence research originating in studies of second language acquisition during the 1950's. She includes work done within the school of Contrastive Analysis, comparing similarities and differences between languages, and Error Analysis methodology, investigating the interference between the two language systems of the L2 learner conceptualized as negative transfer. Conversely, Ortega supports research in positive cross-linguistic influence, including an expanded lexicon, pragmatic competence, phonological advantages in production and perception, as well as an increased learning rate with languages that are typologically close, in other words languages that are genetically related or similar. Cenoz (2013b) maintains that TLA studies of cross-linguistic influence aim to identify patterns of interlingual influences at phonological, lexical and syntactic levels, as well as investigating the factors that can predict these influences. However, Ortega (2009) further maintains that the multitude of factors involved in cross-linguistic influence make predictions very difficult.

Different perspectives on L2 learning predict patterns of language transfer accordingly. Formalist cognitive approaches describe innate, universal interlanguage influence manifesting at structural level, while social approaches, as well as the multicompetence perspective, view contextual factors as prominent. Cognitive language processing perspectives focus on

cognitive processes resulting from input, yet considering contextual factors for determining input patterns. Ortega (2009) maintains that studies of learner interlanguage indicate that the linguistic behaviour of L2 learners do not always reflect L1-L2 differences, but instead suggest universal influences. Falk and Bardel (2010) refer to a previous study (2007) that investigated L3 syntax from a generative perspective, asserting that access to Universal Grammar is possible and constant, regardless of how many specific grammars are being created. The evidence from this study disputes the findings of Håkansson, Pienemann and Sayehli (2002). Håkansson, Pienemann and Sayehli (2002) argue that L1 influence on the L2 is developmentally regulated. They worked within Pienemann's Processability Theory, which they assert is an explicit, formal framework for specifying the constraints of L1 transfer.

A developing second language proficiency, resulting in a L2 status, and typological differences between languages are described as important factors determining cross-linguistic transfer. Falk and Bardel (2010) advance that learners classify their languages according to sociolinguistic and cognitive differences, namely according to context and learning processes. They maintain that all background languages affect the acquisition of syntactic features in the L3. They further maintain that the L2 status factor may hinder positive or negative transfer from the L1. Falk and Bardel (2010) adopt Williams and Hammarberg's (2009) perspective of the L2 status factor as learner's psychological perception of correctness associated with foreignness. Falk and Bardel's (2011) and Rothman and Cabrelli Amaro's (2011) studies support the role of the L2 status factor in motivating syntactic transfer from the L2 to the L3, instead of L1 transfer. Pfenninger's (2014) study lends further support for the L2 status factor. She advances that learners preferred interlanguage transfer to L1 transfer, when they experienced a deficiency in their L3 knowledge, and that they only reverted to their L1 syntactic structure, if they noticed a clear resemblance, in other words, when they judged the L1 to be typologically close to the L3. Falk and Bardel (2010) agree that typological factors can determine transfer from either L1 or L2(s). They describe language proximity or distance as based on genetic relatedness, and typology to refer to typological similarities of particular language structures, while distinguishing psychotypology as the learner's perception of the similarity of languages. With reference to Kellerman's (1983) study and coinage of the term psychotypology, Rast (2010) argues the importance of the learner's perceptions for the processing of linguistic information, determining language performance, instead of typology, which reflects the linguist's analysis of language differences. However, Rast (2010) concedes that as typology is based on genetic relatedness, it often overlaps with psychotypology.

Rothman (2011) analyzes the influence of topological factors with syntactic transfer into the L3. Rothman reviews Flynn's Cumulative-Enhancement Model for language acquisition. Investigating the relative clause development in L3 adult acquisition, Flynn, Foley and Vinnitskaya (2004) conclude that language learning is cumulative, and that all known language can potentially influence the development of subsequent learning. In contrast to the deficit model, the Cumulative-Enhancement Model supposes that prior language can either be neutral or enhance subsequent language acquisition. Proposing the Typological Primacy Model, Rothman (2011) supports the Cumulative-Enhancement Model, but advances that transfer can be negative or positive.

Cross-linguistic transfer functions as a communicative strategy for multilinguals, at surface level of additional language learning and use. Falk and Bardel (2010) refer to Ringbom's (2003) work to point out how learners are always searching for similarities between languages, asserting that typological closeness seems to be of particular importance during the beginning stages of L3 acquisition, allowing for an increased rate of acquisition through cross-linguistic transfer. Corcoll (2013) describes how multilingual, young beginner learners gain cross-linguistic awareness, when their L1 is used through pedagogically-based code switching in additional language classes. She explains that pedagogically-based code switching is the teacher-monitored use of the L1 as a learning aid, in the L3 classroom. Corcoll distinguishes pedagogically-based code switching from the socio-linguistically used term, which is the alternate use of multiple languages as a response to personal, conversational, social and topic-based needs. Dowling (2011) investigates lexical borrowing concluding that code switching fills lexical and conceptual gaps. The latter, she describes as the function of conveying a particular meaning relevant to the context. Ortega (2009) reviews Williams and Hammarberg's (1998) findings, which indicated that code switching entailed intentional, metalinguistic and self-regulatory L1 transfer, while L2 transfer only manifested as unconscious switches to function words aiding language production. Falk and Bardel (2010) encapsulates cross-linguistic influence at lexical level as including the insertion of entire words or code switches, false friends and construction attempts. They define false friends as phonologically or orthographically similar words with different meanings in the multilingual learners' languages that are perceived as helpful, but are deceptive cognates presenting negative transfer. Falk and Bardel explain learners' cross linguistic, lexical construction attempts as lexical material from a background language that is adapted to the TL at phonological or morphological level. De Bot's (2004) multilingual lexicon model explicate interlingual lexical transfer by allowing non-

selective access. He tested the on-line processing time with cognates, which are words with similar form and meaning in two languages, as well as with interlingual homophones, which have similar sounds, but different meanings in two languages. De Bot found that cognates and interlingual homophones were co-activated. De Bot concludes that access to words in the lexicon is non-selective, both in production and perception, however he maintains that proficiency level is key as it effects on-line processing time. He advances further that languages are activated or inhibited as sets, with usage and recency slowing down switches between languages.

In the literature discussed thus far, proficiency regularly emerges as an important factor determining what type of cross-linguistic influence occurs from what language. Rast (2010) points out that whereas L2 literature only has to consider the proficiency of the L2 (i.e. the TL), L3 literature has to consider the proficiency of the L2(s) and the L3 (the TL). In terms of the L2 status factor, Falk and Bardel (2010) advance that high proficiency background languages afford cross-linguistic influence in a high proficiency TL, while low proficiency background languages afford cross-linguistic influences in a low proficiency TL. However, they maintain that when an L2 become automatized then it loses its L2 status. Falk and Bardel posit that generally, a high proficiency in the background language is required for syntactic transfer. Pfenninger (2014) asserts that syntactic transfer occurs only from the L1, unless L2 proficiency is very high allowing for interlanguage transfer from L2(s). In her study with young, adolescent quadrilinguals, Pfenninger (2014) found a decrease in syntactic transfer from the L1 as the TL proficiency increases. Pfenninger's findings support Cummins' (1991) Threshold Theory, which indicates a minimum proficiency level in the TL before positive L1 transfer of academic proficiency.

Cross-linguistic influence is complex and dynamic. Falk and Bardel (2010) advance more factors than proficiency level, psychotypology, typology and L2 status factor to influence cross-linguistic influence, also including language proximity, recency of use, age of acquisition, and context of communication. Cenoz (2013b) maintains that the context of communication influences the formality and the role of the interlocutor in terms of communicative practices, including code mixing. Adding to the complexity of cross-linguistic influence is its bidirectional. Tsang (2014) argues that the more languages learners know, the more the learners are able to notice similarities or differences between their languages, resulting in cross-linguistic influence that is increasingly complex due to more bidirectional possibilities. Tsang further maintains that L3 knowledge leads to greater cross-linguistic awareness between L1 and

L2(s), than L2 knowledge alone. Ortega refers to studies by Cook (2003) and Pavlenko and Jarvis (2002) to illustrate the L2 effects on the L1. Whereas Pfenninger (2014) discussing Cenoz's (2001) study points out that the L1 can influence the L2 and L3, while the L2 can also influence the L1 and L3, and the L3 influences performances in the L2 and L1. However, Pfenninger stresses the importance of proficiency and typological proximity in these languages. Hall, Cheng and Carlson (2006) refer to various studies indicating L2 influence on the L1 in areas of phonology, grammar judgements, morphosyntax, the lexicon, semantics, pragmatics and conceptual representation to support a perspective of multicompetence in defining a theory of language knowledge. (See section 4.4.2.2 for a further discussion of multicompetence regarding a multilingual model for measuring second language development.)

The complexity of factors determining cross-linguistic influence in multilinguals can benefit from the affordances theory, directing a single-minded research focus. Rast (2010) maintains that cross-linguistic influence should be investigated from a point of view asking what learners do with TL input, and what do they perceive in the TL environment. This view is in line with the affordances theory described in chapter 2. Rast further maintains that these observations must be compared with the learner's existing language knowledge. Falk and Bardel (2010) point out the multiplicity of possible interactions between the linguistic systems in the multilingual learner's mind. The numerous variables involved in multilingual studies, including cross-linguistic influences, contribute to the dynamic and complex nature of the interlanguage of multilinguals. In section 4.4.2.2, the relevance of cross-linguistic influences is considered for investigating interlanguage representations representing language competence, and for measuring L2 language development observed in TL performance.

Summarizing this section, a holistic view of the second language learners' language knowledge and language use is motivated with regard to the context of language learning, individual differences and the dynamic competencies of multilinguals. Proficiency and typological distance determine the degree to which the languages of the learner collaborate to construct meaning within the multilingual mind. At a phonological and lexical level, cross-linguistic transfer and cross-linguistic awareness afford self-perceived competence and language production. Second language learning is defined as the learning of any language(s) after infancy and L1(s) acquisition, supporting a cognitive perspective that considers age of acquisition, language knowledge and language processing mechanisms as crucial factors determining language competence.

3.4 SUMMARY

This chapter attempted to answer the question about the nature of second language acquisition by describing and consolidating different perspectives and theories regarding the processes and mechanisms that afford L2 learning. It examined SLA theory identifying different approaches to investigating and analyzing this question. Prominent social, sociolinguistic, cognitive and neuro-cognitive perspectives, and the associated qualitative, quantitative, as well as mixed research methods, afforded more varied insights into, and greater discernment of complex and multifaceted SLA phenomena.

A clear action-goal relationship presented by task-based research, conducted within both social and cognitive approaches, was described informing L2 instructional practices. A review of research in task design supports the Cognition Hypothesis presenting a systematic rationale for grading and sequencing task complexity in L2 learning and teaching. The main claims, principles and task design features of the Cognition Hypothesis was described. The Cognition Hypothesis extends cognitive processing theories with regard to complexity and noticing in L2 learning. These issues are analyzed further in chapters 6 and 7, respectively, when task-based teaching and L2 learning of isiXhosa in primary school intermediate phase are investigated.

Second language learning was conceptualized within multilingual studies, as multilingualism is regarded as the default state of language competence (Hammarberg, 2010). A review of studies in third language acquisition supported a dynamic view of language affordances, with previous language(s) knowledge and learning experiences impacting on subsequent language learning processes. A holistic perspective in multilingual studies presented a multitude of factors, rendering multicompetence a dynamic and complex construct. Positive language affordances in the L2 learning contexts and in multilingualism were identified, including communicative strategies and cross-linguistic awareness.

This chapter invoked the view that global awareness and the growing sense of the importance of multilingualism motivate standardization of theoretical concepts, more open dialogue amongst related disciplines and collaboration between different perspectives in the growing field of enquiry subsumed under SLA research. As Ellis and Shintani (2014) point out, the purpose of SLA research is to describe L2 development and improve L2 instructional practices. Attempting to narrow the gap between SLA theory and pedagogical practices promoting multilingualism, this study values an overarching view including diverse perspectives applied to the focus of investigation, describing L2 development in the instructional context.

CHAPTER FOUR

SECOND LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT IN THE INSTRUCTED LANGUAGE LEARNING SETTING

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Applying the affordances theory in second language (L2) learning motivates the investigation of actions as evidence of perception and uptake of language affordances. L2 use and L2 development are regarded as dependable variables indicating effectuation of internal and external individual language affordances. In this chapter, individual language affordances and measures of L2 development are explored in the literature, consolidating pertinent theories and research findings from diverse perspectives, informing task design and task-based syllabus design for young, beginner isiXhosa L2 learners.

In section 4.2 and 4.3, internal and external language learner factors significant for second language acquisition are investigated. The study is selective in terms of factors already identified as affordances in chapter 2, however the list is not exhausted. Age of onset, implicit and explicit learning, language aptitude and motivation dynamically interact and influence achievement (Ortega, 2009). Input and interaction are essential for L2 learning (Ellis and Shintani, 2014). These constructs are analysed, and a discussion of the findings in pertinent research studies provides further insight into the processes and mechanisms involved in L2 development.

In section 4.4, language development is analyzed within the instructional context. The role of the teacher, methodology and materials are considered to constitute a set of goal affordances for L2 development (Aronin and Singleton, 2012). Fluency, accuracy, and complexity are components of development that are regularly used to measure L2 development, in SLA research studies (Ellis and Shintani, 2014). While a native speaker model has dominated in SLA studies measuring language development, this study supports a multilingual model accommodating current dynamic and complexity perspectives in multilingual research studies (Cenoz, 2013b, Gorter and Cenoz, 2017, Hall, Cheng and Carlson, 2006).

In section 4.4.3, complexity in language development is analysed, motivating the application of the Cognition Hypothesis in task-based syllabi (Robinson, 2011a, Ishikawa, 2014). Complexity as an attribute of language learning is described from various theoretical approaches in SLA informing L2 teaching practices. Invoking the affordances theory, task

complexity is regarded as a positive language affordance in terms of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis for TBLT.

Noticing is generally accepted as an essential requirement for L2 development (Nassaji, 2015, Philp, 2014). Different views about what constitutes noticing and the role it plays in L2 development are described in section 4.4.4, motivating implicit and explicit focus on form methodology.

In this chapter, complexity in L2 acquisition is motivated as the focus of the study investigating linguistic and task complexity measures of language development. Additionally, the affordances theory applied to the Cognition Hypothesis regards task complexity as an individual language affordance for L2 development. Yet, perceiving and effectuation of language affordances are most likely when complexity is part of a set of positive internal and external language affordances.

4.2 INTERNAL LEARNER FACTORS

In section 2.2.4 of chapter 2, internal individual language affordances were described as determining the level at which a particular learner is able to engage with the target language. Reference to internal learner factors or internal ingredients is not uncommon in SLA literature (Ellis and Shintani, 2014, Herschensohn and Young-Scholten (eds.), 2013, O'Grady, 2015). In this section, concepts identified as internal individual language affordances are analysed, considering relevant research findings pertaining to internal learner factors within current SLA literature and related fields. Internal learner factors, in particular the age of onset, implicit and explicit L2 learning, as well as language aptitude, are analyzed and motivated as internal individual language affordances for L2 learning.

4.2.1 Age of onset

Age of onset or age of acquisition refers to the initial point or beginning of exposure to the target language (Muñoz, 2008a). The age of onset is important in studies that investigate the rate of learning or developmental differences of L2 learners at different ages (Abrahamsson, 2012, Llanes and Muñoz, 2013, Service, Yli-Katala, Maury and Kim, 2014, Unsworth, 2013), as well as in studies that investigate ultimate attainment of nativelike proficiency, framed within the paradigm of a critical period for language acquisition (Abrahamsson, 2012, Abrahamsson and Hyltenstam, 2009, DeKeyser, Alfi-Shabtay and Ravid, 2010, Foster, Bolibaug and Kotula, 2014, Granena and Long, 2012, Schmid, Gilbers and Nota, 2014). Within age-dependent SLA

research, there have been contradicting findings and opposing views describing the effect of age in language learning. DeKeyser (2013) argues that such controversies regarding age effects are mainly due to conceptual misunderstandings and methodological difficulties.

The notion of a critical or sensitive period(s) for language learning describes language learning in terms of age effects on the acquisition of separate language components. According to Ortega (2009), the Critical Period Hypothesis originated in the work of neurolinguists Penfield and Roberts (1959), who claimed that there is a critical period for language acquisition and that the brain loses its plasticity after the age of 9 years, and in Lenneberg's (1967) work, who posited that with the onset of puberty, the process of lateralization of the brain (i.e. the specialization of the left brain hemisphere of right-handed individuals for language functions) causes humans to lose their natural predisposition for language learning. Abrahamsson (2014) maintains that subsequent research has shown that lateralization is completed much earlier than puberty, and he advocates the differentially timed process of myelination of different cortical areas as correlating best with maturational constraints. Abrahamsson describes the function of myelin, which surrounds the neuronal axons, as accelerating electrochemical signaling, as well as hindering the establishment of short-distance connections between neurons in the same local cortical area. He maintains that the successive myelination of different cortical areas compares well with SLA research findings, indicating the successive maturation of the brain and multiple critical periods. Ortega describes the concepts of critical and sensitive periods with reference to animal learning and the work done by Knudson (2004) in animal neurology (2009:13). Accordingly, a critical period refers to a window of opportunity to develop a skill, which when it has passed will be irreversible. On the other hand a sensitive period to develop an ability, when missed, might be compensated or reversed through rich exposure. However, Ortega (2009) points out that in SLA, these terms are essentially considered as synonyms. Krashen, Long and Scarcella (1979) advance that acquirers who begin natural exposure to second languages during childhood generally achieve higher second language proficiency than acquirers who begin as adults. Therefore, they argue that there is a critical period for language acquisition. Bongaerts (2005) states that proponents of the Critical Period Hypothesis maintain that age effects on L2 learning operate within a circumscribed period of time, marked by an onset (the beginning) and terminus of a period of heightened sensitivity to environmental language input.

Several studies support the notion of different sensitive periods for acquiring native-like competence in specified components of language. Granena and Long's (2012) study indicates

different sensitive periods for phonology, with an offset at 6 years of age and closing at 12 years, for lexis and collocations closing between 9 and 12 years, and for morphosyntax closing during the midteens. In their study, Abrahamsson and Hyltenstam (2009) did not find any learners to achieve linguistic nativelikeness beyond an age of onset of 12 years. Schmid, Gilbers and Nota (2014) assert that target language structures and pronunciation are learnable, but when late bilinguals with an age of onset of 11 years were tested under the processing pressures of on-line speech production, there were perceptible indications of non-nativeness. They suggest that these results stem from declarative representations of language knowledge in older learners who rely on explicit learning mechanisms. However, different components of language aptitude, such as verbal aptitude (DeKeyser, Alfi-Shabtay and Ravid, 2010), working memory (Long and Granena, 2012), and phonological short-term memory (Foster, Bolibaugh and Kotula, 2014), seem to correlate positively with ultimate attainment in older learners. Implicit and explicit learning and language aptitude are discussed further in sections 4.2.2 and 4.2.3, respectively. DeKeyser (2013) maintains that there are qualitative differences in child and adult L2 learning in terms of outcomes and processes. Analyzing Lenneberg's original Critical Period Hypothesis, Abrahamsson (2014) points out that it specifically refers to automatic acquisition resulting from exposure. Therefore, Abrahamsson concludes that the Critical Period Hypothesis clearly only applies to natural acquisition. Long (2005) further maintains that the Critical Period Hypothesis does not make any claim about the rate of acquisition, but only about ultimate attainment.

The construct of ultimate attainment is argued from either the perspective of age or exposure, with some proponents advancing continued L2 development, considering the construct to be invalid (Larsen-Freeman, 2015). Muñoz (2008a) states that ultimate attainment refers to the cessation of language development in spite of optimal learning conditions, which she describes as quantity and quality target language input. She asserts that within the foreign language learning context, ultimate attainment is not attainable, as the conditions required cannot be met. Differentiating between naturalistic L2 learning and instructed foreign language learning settings, Muñoz describes the age of onset as the point of immersion in the L2 context for the former, whereas the latter refers to the beginning of L2 instruction. In the foreign language acquisition setting, the TL is generally not used outside the language classroom. Muñoz argues that with limited exposure in foreign language acquisition settings, the age range for the instructional period is more significant than the age of onset, as different phases of cognitive development impact on the rate of learning. Krashen, Long and Scarcella (1979) assert that in

second language acquisition, adults proceed faster than children through the early stages of syntactic and morphological development, and that older children acquire the L2 language faster than young children, when the time and exposure are held constant. Ortega (2009) suggests that older learners' cognitive abilities, metalinguistic skills and learning strategies enable them to learn certain aspects of the target language faster.

Research studies comparing different age groups' L2 performances, indicate different learning mechanisms and processes associated with levels of cognitive maturity. In a foreign-word repetition task, Service, Yli-Katala, Maury and Kim (2014) observed that adults have a superior explicit memory for the retrieval of word form. Abrahamsson (2012) tested learners' L2 phonetic and grammatical intuition to access their implicit language knowledge. He suggests that learners older than 13 years of age use fundamentally different learning mechanisms than young learners and rely on explicit acquisition. Klein, Mok, Chen and Watkins (2014) compared the brain structure of monolinguals to that of bilinguals, and found differences in the thickness of areas in the cortex. They processed magnetic resonance images through multiple sequential procedures in order to measure the cortical thickness of the entire brain. When Klein, Mok, Chen and Watkins compared monolinguals to simultaneous bilinguals (0-3 years age of onset), they found no differences in the brain development. However, in early (4-6 years age of onset) and late (7-10 years age of onset) sequential bilinguals, the anterior aspects of the left inferior frontal gyrus were significantly enlarged, while the anterior right inferior frontal gyrus in the homologous region was significantly reduced. Klein, Mok, Chen and Watkins advance that there are different learning processes involved when a L2 is learnt compared to L1 learning, and they advance that the age of acquisition is crucial in laying down the structure for language learning. Differences in the learning rate of children have also been attributed to previous language learning experience (Haenni Hoti, Heinzmann, Müller, Oliviera, Wicki and Werlen, 2011), as well as age and literacy skills (Lobo, 2013), with results favouring older children.

Age related studies are of particular importance in SLA, as they address issues regarding starting ages and effective instructional processes for L2 learning and teaching (DeKeyser, 2013). However, the interpretation of findings is complicated by conceptual differences and methodological problems. DeKeyser refers to arguments for or against a critical period, supported by either accumulated learning experiences or biological development, and by either differences in language knowledge representation or language processing determining language development, as well as maintaining the fundamental differences in foreign language learning settings as compared to L2 immersion settings. Describing research problems with sampling,

DeKeyser asserts that socioeconomical and socioeducational factors, L1 typological distance, language aptitude, affective, conative and identity factors, along with other individual variables must be considered. In their study of foreign language receptive skills, Lidgren and Muñoz (2013) argue that cognate linguistic distance between the TL and L1, TL exposure and parents' educational level and TL use emerged as important variables. The concept of nativelikeness and the use of native speaker control groups in research studies are also regarded problematic. Maintaining that native speaker norms are often set to low, Long (2005) and Abrahamson and Hyltenstam (2009) argue that the level of difficulty and the variety of tests and structures must be more comprehensive. On the other hand, Hulstijn (2011) points out the variability in proficiency levels of native speakers, and argues that only basic language proficiency should be considered as the norm. Andringa (2014) proposes that the level of nativelike mastery is decided by the sampling of L2 learners, the selection of target structures and test tasks, as well as the sampling of a native speaker control group. Birdsong (2005) also argues against the use of nativelikeness to measure L2 performances, maintaining that some deviances result from bilingualism, representing a multilingual competence instead of failures to learn. In her study, Unsworth (2013) attributes the developmental differences in young bilinguals (4-10 years age of onset) as compared to monolinguals to cross-linguistic influences. Considering the effects of bilingualism and language activation to operate across all ages, Ortega (2009) suggests that the solution to the age dispute in L2 learning lies not in the biologically predetermined, but is more likely to be explained by neurocognitive and cognitive processing differences.

In summary, L2 learning and use are different within different age ranges. Young learners learn mainly implicitly, and older learners rely more on explicit and analytic learning processes (Wray, 2008). The age range of L2 acquisition is considered a language affordance, as it describes a relationship between the contextually provided input presenting stimulus and the learner's processing mechanism, allowing L2 learning when it is compatible. The affordances theory in L2 learning and teaching proposes instructional practices matching L2 input to the learner's processing mechanism, supporting age as a positive language affordance. Distinct learning processes result in qualitatively different language representations, defining language competence. Some linguists attribute these age-related differences to a biologically predetermined critical period for language learning, while others consider the context, input, cognitive maturity, previous learning experiences and language knowledge to be critical factors.

4.2.2 Implicit and explicit learning

Implicit and explicit learning processes are considered internal language affordances that are perceived in accordance with age and the L2 learning setting. These distinct processes are differentiated in terms of the focus of learner attentional resources, and effectuated proportionately. In section 2.2.2, implicit learning was motivated as an affordance for young learners perceiving the affordance directly, instead of analyzing the properties of the stimulus. Motivating the importance of implicit and explicit learning in SLA, Hulstijn (2005) states that L1 acquisition relies on implicit learning and results in uniform levels of success, while L2 acquisition relies on both implicit and explicit learning resulting in variation in the levels of attainment.

L1 acquisition relying on implicit learning describes the seemingly effortless acquisition of complex knowledge and skills during childhood, but distinguishing implicit learning in L2 acquisition is problematic, as it is relative to the construct of attention. Rebuschat (2014) refers to the study of Reber (1967), where the term implicit learning was first used in relation to complex, rule-governed information processing without awareness, which was differentiated from explicit learning conceptualized as the conscious processes of identifying patterns and rule formation. According to Rebuschat (2014) implicit learning is learning without awareness or intention. However, awareness is dissimilar to intention in degrees of attention involved. Furthermore, intentional learning can also be distinguished from incidental learning, which refers to developing skills or competencies while doing something else (Ortega, 2009). Robinson (2005b) maintains that incidental learning relies on working memory, and includes a variety of conscious explicit learning along with unconscious implicit learning. (The issue of attention will be discussed further in section 4.4.4.) Ellis and Shintani (2014) posit that the availability of implicit learning mechanisms is regarded as age-regulated, and often implied in a critical period for language learning. On the other hand, Ellis (2005a) maintains that most learning is implicit, and the vast majority of language processing is unconscious. He states that implicit learning relies on frequency of usage, statistical tallying of input and collating evidence in memory. Ellis maintains that implicit learning is the unconscious tallying and distributional analysis of input, which is functionally and anatomically separate from the conscious, attended processing that is explicit learning. Ortega (2009) asserts that implicit learning is learning without controlled attention. She explains that implicit learning is either considered to be abstractionist from symbolic underlying rules, or to be connectionist and associative from underlying statistical structure. However, Ellis (2005b) points out that innatists agree with

connectionists, describing language competence as only reflecting implicit knowledge. Li and Tokowicz (2014) describe Johnson and Newport's (1989) "less is more" hypothesis, which does not rely on a biological account for sensitive periods. According to the "less is more" hypothesis, the less well-developed cognitive capacity in children lends itself to gradual, simpler and implicit statistical learning, as compared to adults, who because of formal operational abilities, tend to use explicit analytic procedures in language learning. Children's limited componential analyses of possible form-meaning mappings require less cognitive resources than adults who compute complex form-meaning mappings simultaneously. This "less is more" account of language learning coincides with connectionists and usage-based models.

Older learners' superior cognitive abilities permit explicit learning. Ellis (2005b) maintains that explicit knowledge develops gradually with age. He describes the work of developmental psychologist, Karmiloff-Smith (1979), who identified the manifestation of metalinguistic behaviour in children of 5 years or older. Metalinguistic knowledge was operationalized as their conscious awareness of why a sentence is ungrammatical (2005b:148). According to Hulstijn (2005), explicit learning is language processing that consciously analyzes input, identifying regularities that support rules. He states that explicit memory recalls or recognizes past or previous encountered events. Hulstijn further maintains that explicit knowledge is the awareness of and ability to verbalize declarative and episodic knowledge. According to Ellis (2005b) declarative knowledge is explicit knowledge that is factual and encyclopedic in nature. Hulstijn (2005) maintains that the problem with explicit knowledge is that natural languages cannot sufficiently be described by categorical rules. Yet, Norris and Ortega's (2000) meta-analysis of studies that investigated the effectiveness of L2 instruction confirms the effectiveness of explicit instruction. Ellis (2005a) supports these findings, stating that explicit instruction can speed up L2 acquisition. Hulstijn (2005) defines explicit instruction as the presentation of information regarding language structure, including rules underlying the input, and may rely on deductive and inductive learning. Spada (2011) describes form-focused instruction as drawing learners' attention to form within meaning-based L2 teaching activities. Spada also found explicit form-focused instruction to be more effective than implicit form-focused instruction. Spada maintains that the right time for introducing form depends on a learner's cognitive development and L1 knowledge, which interact with L2 learning processes and proficiency. (Focus on form and form-focused instruction affording noticing and L2 development are discussed further in chapter 6.)

Although explicit and implicit learning are recognized as distinct processes, separating the learning outcomes are more difficult. Pointing out that that implicit and explicit learning are often described according to the representations or knowledge that the processing results in, Hulstijn (2005) argues that conceptual difficulties in studies investigating implicit and explicit knowledge result from individual learner and input differences, such as language knowledge and salience, respectively. Ellis and Shintani (2014) describe the outcomes of implicit learning as knowledge that is variable, yet, systematic and available for automatic processing. Rebuschat (2013) states that during implicit learning there is no awareness of form at the time of encoding, resulting primarily in unconscious knowledge. However, Hulstijn (2005) questions the degree of attention required for implicit learning. According to Williams (2005), noticing is a necessary condition for learning, but understanding might not be. Williams (2005) supports Schmidt's (1990) conceptualization of understanding as the awareness of generalization. Williams distinguishes between item learning, which requires focal attention, and productivity, which is the generalizations of encoded items that are applied without awareness to other meaning constructions. Williams (2005) investigated implicit learning of determiners and found evidence of cross-linguistic productivity, arguing that background languages providing knowledge of gender might have assisted implicit learning. Ellis (2005b) suggests that the best ways to test implicit knowledge are oral imitation tests, oral narration tests and timed grammatical judgement tests. Hulstijn (2005) states that implicit memory allows for quick, efficient performance of a task. According to Rebuschat (2014), grammatical judgement tests with a confidence rating, reflect learners' intuitive L2 knowledge as evidence of implicit learning. On the other hand, Ellis (2005b) suggests that explicit knowledge can be measured in an untimed grammatical judgement test or with metalinguistic knowledge tests. Rebuschat (2013) asserts that indirect explicit knowledge test results, including results from untimed grammatical judgement tests, may be contaminated by testing implicit knowledge as well. Rebuschat further maintains that retrospective verbal reports might also be inaccurate to exclude explicit knowledge when learners cannot describe the knowledge that underlies their performance. Instead, he argues that the inability to verbalize an answer does not mean that the learner does not possess the explicit knowledge in question. When Robinson (2005b) investigates language aptitude in L2 learning, he found that experienced language learners are better explicit learners, but that analytical processing has negative effects on implicit learning. Robinson supports the view that language aptitude and general cognitive abilities play a larger role in explicit and incidental learning than in implicit learning, which he argues explains why there is greater variance in the outcome of L2 acquisition than L1 acquisition. (Language

aptitude is explored further in the following section 3.4.3.) The complexity of factors determining the extent to which both explicit learning and implicit learning impact on learning outcomes makes it very difficult to generalize these research findings, isolating learning processes in L2 acquisition.

The role of explicit and implicit knowledge in L2 learning and use are regularly described from a general cognitive perspective on language learning with reference to related terms, namely declarative and procedural knowledge. Ullman (2014) states that in SLA, declarative and procedural memory and implicit and explicit memory, respectively, are mostly conceptualized as isomorphic. Ellis and Shintani (2014) maintain that implicit L2 knowledge is required to become a fluent, competent L2 user. Furthermore, Ellis and Shintani posit that explicit L2 knowledge is used to monitor L2 production. Ellis (2005a) supports this notion, stating that implicit knowledge is used for fluent L2 production and comprehension, whereas explicit knowledge is used when there is a breakdown in communication and negotiation of meaning. Proceduralization and the possibility of an interface between implicit and explicit knowledge have important implications for language learning and effective L2 instruction.

The relationship between explicit and implicit knowledge is often explained according to a possible interface. Ellis and Shintani (2014) describe the non-interface position with reference to the work of Krashen (1981) and Paradis (2009). The non-interface position considers implicit and explicit learning to be contrary processes, namely automatic as apposed to controlled, and implicit and explicit knowledge to be neurolinguistically distinct (Ellis and Shintani, 2014:12). The strong interface position is supported by DeKeyser's skills acquisition theory. According to Ellis and Shintani, DeKeyser (1998) proposes that learners first acquire declarative knowledge and through practice establish implicit representations, which co-exist with the explicit representation. The weak interface predicts that explicit knowledge can assist in establishing implicit knowledge, but it depends on whether the learner is developmentally ready (Ellis and Shintani, 2014). Ellis (2003) posits that explicit knowledge can assist the learner in noticing forms for implicit processing. Supporting the implicit-explicit interface from a connectionist perspective, Ellis (2005a) proposes that explicit learning results in explicit representation, which provides input to connectionist implicit learning systems within the complexity of the wholeness of the human mind. Ellis motivates this view with the description of explicitly learnt formulaic language becoming available for implicit learning processes. According to Ellis, formulaic language in explicit memories are used to construct novel utterances, and is important for beginner learners to establish social interactions and

communicative involvement. Ellis explicates that formulaic language also becomes available for conscious analysis and restructuring, as well as for implicit learning processes, like categorization, distributional analysis and connectionist frequency-tuned abstractions.

The implicit-explicit L2 learning interface perspectives inform L2 teaching methodology in providing support for the application of the Cognition Hypothesis in task-based teaching. Ellis (2005a) explains the significance of the implicit-explicit knowledge interface for L2 learning and teaching. He maintains that the implications of attentional focus in input processing and output processing, which provide different opportunities for the interface of explicit and implicit knowledge, are simple but profound in terms of the consequences it holds for L2 language instruction. Ellis (2005a) describes how conscious processing results in proceduralization. Firstly, he states that practice leads to improved access and, therefore, better retrieval of explicit, declarative memories. Secondly, schematization and script-building speeds up controlled processing. Thirdly, adjacent practice leads to chunking and consolidation. Finally, automatization and implicit practice occur when the relevant production is no longer under explicit control, and can be performed while thinking of something else. Williams (2005) suggests that there could be a negative relationship between task demands and implicit learning. These views support the recycling of communicative tasks for restructuring and automatization of language knowledge, while shifting the focus of attentional resources by adjusting task demands through task design features in terms of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis and SSARC model. (See section 3.2.4.) Ellis and Shintani (2014) maintain that considering that implicit knowledge underlies the ability to communicate fluently, it should be given priority in L2 instruction. They state that implicit learning occurs during language use and, therefore, L2 learners need opportunities to participate in communicative activities. They argue that considering the possible implicit-explicit knowledge interface, as well as the monitoring role of explicit knowledge, L2 instruction also needs to facilitate explicit language learning through focus on form.

Summarizing this section, it is clear that young learners have limited access to explicit learning skills, but their simpler, less developed cognitive functioning allows them to learn language easier than adults. On the other hand, older learners' more developed cognitive abilities and language experience afford better explicit learning and a higher rate of learning. Existing language knowledge and explicit L2 knowledge afford noticing and monitored production, providing input for implicit learning processes. Applying these views to L2 pedagogic practice supports the creation of dual affordances for L2 development: firstly, maximum exposure to

TL input is needed to promote implicit learning and secondly, maximum opportunities for TL output or production afford automatization, while facilitating an interface between explicit and implicit knowledge.

4.2.3 Language aptitude: cognitive and affective factors

Aptitude is defined as an ability, a capability and an innate or acquired capacity for something (www.dictionary.reference.com). Therefore, it is arguable that language aptitude includes cognitive, conative and affective components. According to Ortega (2009) contemporary psychologists consider cognitive, conative and affective factors in a symbiotic relationship when they examine individual differences. Ortega describes cognitive factors as relating to the human mind and learning, conative factors as including free will and choice, and affective factors to refer to temperament, emotions and feelings. Language affordances in terms of cognitive language aptitude, motivation and willingness to communicate that were identified in chapter 2 are incorporated in a broadly defined aptitude construct, which is considered to constitute a capacity for L2 language learning.

Language aptitude, a construct that is mostly cognitively operationalized in research studies, is often investigated in terms of age, rate of acquisition and ultimate attainment (Ortega, 2009). Motivation is widely accepted as instrumental in L2 acquisition (DeKeyser, 2013, Dimroth, 2008, Ellis and Shintani, 2014, Lobo, 2013, Nunan, 2003, Otwinowska and De Angelis, 2014a, Robinson, 2007, 2010, Tomlinson, 2013, Van den Branden, 2008). However, there are few recent studies that primarily investigate motivation in SLA (Dörnyei and Chan, 2013, Eddy-U, 2015, Foster, Bolibaug and Kotula, 2014, Papi, 2010, Sampson, 2015). According to Ortega (2009), anxiety is included under the wider construct of willingness to communicate, and is a crucial determinant in L2 use. Ortega attributes problems in describing L2 aptitude to the focus on measuring language aptitude, rather than explaining the construct, as well as to isolating cognitive abilities from conative, affective and contextual affordances (2009:149).

Conventionally viewed as mainly a cognitive construct, language aptitude tests aim to measure knowledge and skills that assist in L2 learning. Robinson (2005a) explains language aptitude as the cognitive abilities that information processing draws on during L2 learning and performances, during different stages and in various contexts of language learning. However, Robinson also includes underlying neural differences functioning at a subcomputational physical level, the contributions of personality traits and conative factors in a more broadly defined aptitude for achieving L2 learning success. According to Thompson (2013), the interest

in language aptitude originated from a need to identify good language learners, so as to increase cost-effectiveness in language education, as early as the 1920's, in the American school system and later in the military. In reviewing Carroll's (1981) model of language aptitude, which is the basis of the Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT), Thompson (2013) questions what exactly is measured when language aptitude is investigated. According to Thompson, Carroll distinguishes between general intelligence and language aptitude. Carroll also distinguishes between language aptitude and achievement. The former is described as a capability of learning, and the latter as a capability of performance. Thompson (2013) supports Skehan's (1990) account of language aptitude tests measuring partly a person's innate ability, and partly a person's parental background and literacy. According to Robinson (2005b) the MLAT, often translated into various languages, and language aptitude tests for young language learners, like the EMLAT for elementary level school learners, and Pimsleur's Language Aptitude Battery were used successfully to predict differences in rate of learning within instructed language learning contexts. Language aptitude tests have been used in research that investigates how learners in different age ranges for onset rely on language aptitude. DeKeyser, Alfi-Shabtay and Ravid (2010) identify a significant correlation between verbal aptitude and ultimate attainment for adults, but not for early learners. Granena and Long (2012) attribute the correlation between language aptitude and native-like attainment in pronunciation to the older learners' higher analytic, explicit learning aptitude, which afforded better monitoring during the reading aloud tests. Granena and Long establish a significant correlation between the memory component of aptitude and lexis and collocation attainment for learners with an age of onset in the age range of 16 – 29 years. They advance that memory is important for implicit item learning.

Describing its multicomponential nature, Ellis and Shintani (2014) maintain that language aptitude is a complex and dynamic construct. They describe the componential nature of L2 aptitude by referring to proposed aptitude models of Skehan (2002), Sternberg (2002) and Robinson (2002). Skehan's model includes components of auditory segmentation, attention management, working memory, memory, phonemic coding, grammatical sensitivity, inductive language learning ability, restructuring capacity, automatization, proceduralization, retrieval processes and chunking. According to Skehan's model different abilities are involved in different stages of information processing. Sternberg's model distinguishes three types of aptitude: analytical intelligence, creative intelligence and practical intelligence. According to Ellis and Shintani (2014), Sternberg (2002) argues that practical intelligence is trainable and

therefore renders language aptitude changeable. Thompson's (2013) study of the interface between multilingualism and language aptitude supports Sternberg's view that language aptitude is dynamic. She used the Cognitive Ability for Novelty in Acquisition of Language (Foreign) Test, and found that even a very limited knowledge of other languages impacts positively on the learners' language aptitude. Thompson also applies dynamic systems theory to language aptitude research, and considers that a language learner's past experiences and language aptitude is intertwined. She maintains that the learner's multiple languages interact with the conceptualization of the learner's internal language system as a whole, and in this way affect the learner's language aptitude. Ortega (2009) points out that intelligence, first language ability and foreign language aptitude partially overlap, because academic skills and grammatical sensitivity are implicated. Robinson (2005b) proposes a model for aptitudes that allows for development and different learning contexts. The inner two circles apply to initial input-based learning: the inner most circle includes abilities, such as phonological and text working memory capacity and speed that combine to form the aptitude complexes in the second circle, including noticing the gap. The third circle identifies task aptitudes relevant for output practice and complex task performance. The outer circle describes pragmatic or interactional abilities or traits that are necessary for transfer of task-performance to real-world interactive settings. Ellis and Shintani (2014) argue from a componential perspective on L2 aptitude that learning strategies could compensate for weaknesses in a learner's particular aptitude profile. Ellis and Shintani (2014) discuss Wesche's (1981) study to illustrate how language aptitude mediates the effects of instruction. Ellis and Shintani point out that when language learners were matched to the type of instruction compatible with their aptitude profile, they gained higher scores in tests and reported more interest and motivation to learn and participate.

Motivation, considered as forming part of the conative component of language aptitude, is measured in terms of the perceived value of L2 learning for an individual learner, within a particular time-space. Shintani and Ellis (2014) point out that language aptitude has little value without motivation. Gardner (2014) states that the concept of motivation is multifaceted, and that it is commonly used to explain learners' behaviour. According to Gardner, learner motivation is important in SLA, because it is positively related to achievement. Within the second language acquisition setting, Gardner describes motivation in terms of cultural orientation, including integrativeness into the TL community, and attitudes towards the language learning setting. He asserts that positive attitudes and low levels of language anxiety afford achievement. According to Ortega (2009), Gardner (1985) developed the very influential

Attitude/Motivation Test Battery to measure motivation quantitatively. This test battery addresses three dimensions of motivation: effort, attitude and personal investment. Gardner (2014) discusses Noels' (2001) views on motivation as being linked to learning orientation. Noels' self-determination model describes motivation along a continuum with amotivation, which attaches no value to the learning experience, at the low end and intrinsic orientation, which reflects a higher level of self-determination, on the upper end. Ortega (2009) maintains that extrinsic motivation lies midway, but can be internalized through enjoyment and self-accomplishment. Ortega (2009) states that Noels (2000) developed the Language Learning Orientation Scale to identify the quality of motivation. Extrinsic motivation is operationalized as means-end causation or pragmatic-instrumental motives, whereas intrinsic motivation is operationalized as self-causation and autonomy. In the foreign language learning setting, Dörnyei developed an L2 motivational self-system, which describes motivation as seeking to eliminate discrepancies between the future L2-self-image, including the intrinsically motivated ideal L2-self or extrinsically motivated ought to L2-self, and the current actual-self (Dörnyei and Chan, 2013). According to the L2 motivation self-system, the L2 learning experience also plays an important role and relates to situation specific motives. Ellis and Shintani (2014) discuss Dörnyei and Otto's (1998) process model of L2 acquisition to illustrate a dynamic, linear view of motivation. The process model identifies preactional, process and post-actional stages, with action sequences that include choice motivation, executive motivation and motivational retrospection, respectively. Ellis and Shintani (2014) point out that goals, a clear action plan with subtasks and self-regulatory motivational maintenance strategies afford initiation, persistence and success. More recently motivation is conceptualized from the complexity and Dynamic Systems theories perspectives as an interactive, complex and situated construct in the L2 classroom (Sampson, 2015, Waninge, De Bot and Dörnyei, 2014). Sampson utilizes self-report and retrospective data in a qualitative study to illustrate the co-formed nature of motivation emergent across the whole class. Waninge, De Bot and Dörnyei conducted an individual micro-analysis of four students and found individual variability within certain predictable stable phases of motivation. They advance that motivation is inextricably related to the individual learner's learning context.

Intrinsic motivation that is based on an experiential, present needs or goals affords noticing and deeper language processing. Ortega (2009) maintains that perception, behaviour and learning depend on more than cognition, but are subjected to humans' conscious and volitional nature. Ellis and Shintani (2014) discuss Schmidt's (2010) perspective on the relationship between

motivation and learning to explain how motivation affords noticing. They explain that motivation affords interlanguage development by directing more attention to morphosyntactic structures in the input. Ellis and Shintani (2014) support this view by referring to the studies of Takahashi (2005) and Bassiri (2011), which found positive correlations between motivation and the acquisition of pragmalinguistic features and question forms, respectively. According to Manolopoulou-Sergi (2004), intrinsically motivated learners process information deeper and more elaborately. Manolopoulou-Sergi relates L2 use to the learner's willingness to communicate, and assert that motivation can block or enhance TL output. She states that retrospection on language experience and appraisal of L2 use determine future motivation and action. Whereas, Dörnyei partly contributes L2 learning motivation to the immediate learning environment and L2 learning experience (Dörnyei and Chan, 2013). He maintains the positive impact of success and an enjoyable quality in a language course. Ortega (2009) supports this view, arguing that there is a reciprocal relationship between language learning and motivation. Donitsha-Schmidt, Inbar and Shohamy (2004) investigated the effect of L2 teaching on learner's attitudes and motivation in Israeli schools where spoken Arabic is taught. They concluded that L2 learning affords positive attitudes towards the L2 and its speakers and culture, as well as positive language learning motivation. Donitsha-Schmidt, Inbar and Shohamy identify teachers and curriculum as critical factors determining the quality of instruction, which they consider the best predictor of L2 learner motivation.

Internal individual language affordances permitting perceiving of positive external affordances do not guarantee uptake or effectuation of language affordances. (See section 2.2.5.) MacIntyre and Doucette (2010) maintain that even when the L2 learners' goals are authentic and point at intrinsic motivation, some learners are still hesitant to interact and use the target language. MacIntyre and Doucette define willingness to communicate as the decision to initiate L2 communication, in other words the readiness to speak in the L2 at a particular time to a specific person, resulting in communicative action. They point out that willingness to communicate can be due to stable personality traits, or it can vary from situation to situation. Pawlak and Mystkowska-Wiertelak (2015) assert that the frequency of communication is inextricably linked to rate of acquisition. They maintain that the importance of willingness to communicate is supported by a number of theoretical positions, like the interaction hypothesis, the output hypothesis and the sociocultural theory. Eddy-U (2015) further maintains that the effectiveness of task-based learning largely relies on the individual learner's willingness to communicate. Zarrinabadi (2014) distinguishes two views on the construct of willingness to communicate:

the first is the stable, personality-based predisposition, namely trait-like, and the second is situational and dynamic. Ortega (2009) argues that low levels of language anxiety and self-perceived competence in L2 immersion settings and foreign language classrooms, respectively, afford L2 communicative competence, while L2 communicative competence is the best predictor of willingness to communicate. Ortega supports a dynamic view of willingness to communicate that changes with context and time.

Studies of learners' willingness to communicate confirm the importance of self-perceived L2 competence, developed through exposure to input and positive output experiences afforded by learner-centered methodology. Investigating willingness to communicate in the L2 immersion setting identifying trait-like, stable patterns amongst high school students, MacIntyre and Doucette (2010) found a positive correlation between willingness to communicate and perceived L2 competence. In addition, they found a negative correlation between willingness to communicate and L2 anxiety. Zarrinabadi (2014) investigated the effect of teachers' behaviour on learners' willingness to communicate. He used qualitative measures (focused essays) to analyze Iranian university L2 students' perspectives. Zarrinabadi advances that teacher's longer wait time, delayed error correction, choice of an interesting topic on which students were knowledgeable, as well as teacher's support in the form of encouragement afford willingness to communicate. Within a task-based language classroom setting, Eddy-U (2015) advances that short-term goals are stronger motivators than long term vision for willingness to communicate. She proposes a task-situated model for willingness to communicate that includes the perception of learner role, perception of task, L2 self-confidence and L2 learning motivation. Eddy-U emphasizes the importance of an activity type that promotes friendship through teamwork and an encouraging, positive classroom atmosphere. She also maintains the importance of partnering learners with a familiar interlocutor. In a study of English foreign language anxiety in Korean primary schools, Yim (2014) identified perceived level of proficiency as the best predictor, while exposure to the TL was the second best predictor of L2 anxiety. Yim recommends creating a learning environment that develops positive evaluations of language proficiency by regularly recognizing progress. Pawlak and Mystkowska-Wiertelak (2015) argue the dynamic nature of L2 willingness to communicate from a dynamic systems perspective. They maintain that willingness to communicate evolves over time due to an interplay of numerous factors, and can fluctuate during one communicative event. Pawlak and Mystkowska-Wiertelak advance that the instructional context (i.e. immersion vs non-immersion), the classroom organization mode, familiarity with the interlocutor, the level of

participation of the interlocutor, access to necessary vocabulary, and anxiety vs. self-confidence impact on levels of readiness to speak. They emphasize the importance of planning time and a suitable topic for tasks, as well as recommending the teaching of conversation strategies.

Summarizing this section, L2 learning potential is described in terms of individual differences, including cognitive language aptitude, trait and situational motivation and willingness to communicate. Individual language affordances present opportunities for L2 learning describing a relationship between the L2 environment and the learners' multilingual language competence. Learners' age, language aptitude and learning processes are internal individual language affordances, which when perceived and effectuated in accordance with learners' learning needs and goals, determine the level of L2 learning engagement. SLA theory and research indicate that internal learner factors are complex and dynamic, consisting of multiple, interrelating components, which are sensitive to the L2 learning setting shaped by the curriculum and teaching methodology.

4.3 EXTERNAL LEARNER FACTORS

Cognitive and social perspectives on SLA argue the importance of target language input and interaction for L2 development. Gass and José Alvarez Torres (2005) assert that there is not a single theory or approach to SLA that does not recognize the importance of input.

Describing the important role of input in L2 acquisition, Ortega (2009) refers to Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis, originating from the late 1970's. The comprehensible input hypothesis advances that if input is comprehensible, but challenging ($i+1$), then L2 development is possible. However, Ortega maintains the need to distinguish between comprehension and learning. She explicates that the environment affords input, and that much of the oral input that learners encounter in the environment is experienced through interaction. Ortega adduces the interaction hypothesis in advancing the need for interaction to elaborate input, making it comprehensible through negotiation of meaning.

The learning contexts or L2 learning settings afford different forms of input in terms of genre, mode, register and interaction. Ellis and Shintani (2014) posit that teaching by nature involves input. They maintain that teacher centered approaches to L2 instruction, sustaining teacher talk as the dominant form of input, prevail in most L2 classes. The affordances theory in L2 learning and teaching identifies what kind of input, under which conditions best affords L2 learning.

4.3.1 Language input

Language input is a central construct in cognitive L2 learning theories. Barcroft and Wong (2013) define input as meaningful samples of a TL to which the L2 learner is exposed within a meaningful context. They argue that input drives language acquisition, and without input, language acquisition is impossible. The input hypothesis is prominent in generative, processing and usage-based cognitive theories of second language acquisition (Pica, 2013, Ellis and Collins, 2009). However, research evidence indicates limitations to the input hypothesis (Ellis and Shintani, 2014, Kim, 2006).

Describing Krashen's input hypothesis, Ellis (2003) states that L2 learners need access to comprehensible input and a low affective filter to afford L2 acquisition from the available input. Robinson (2005b) points out that Krashen's view of L2 acquisition was incidental learning while processing comprehensible input for meaning. In their discussion of Krashen's input hypothesis (1985), Ellis and Shintani (2014) maintain that Krashen suggested two key ways in which input is made comprehensible: firstly, a situational context providing objects and actions that enhance meaning, when the learner perceives them as related to the input, and secondly, simplified codes. However, Ellis (2003) argues that language comprehension does not guarantee language learning. Ellis and Shintani (2014) support this view, explaining that when learners comprehend input through top-down processing, interpreting contextual clues and schematic knowledge, then the learners do not need to attend to or notice specific linguistic forms in the input. Ellis and Shintani interpret Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis (i+1) as requiring input at a comprehensible level, yet linguistically enriched enough, as to afford attention and bottom-up or linguistic processing of input, which they argue would stretch learners' linguistic resources, affording L2 development. Summarizing these views, the input hypothesis advances three conditions for L2 acquisition: simplified input, enriched input and positive affective affordances. Pica (2013) points out that linguistic elements with low perceptual salience often go unnoticed. Describing salience as the perceived strength of stimuli, Ellis and Collins (2009) maintain that the quality of input is most important for L2 acquisition. Presenting a negative affordance for language learning, *linguistic difficulty* is conceptualized as the relationship between the learners' processing mechanisms and the linguistic properties in the input manifesting as low perceptual salience. In chapter 7, linguistic difficulty in isiXhosa communicative tasks for young beginner L2 learners motivates focus on form and grammar-focused instructional activities.

It has been argued that the input can be considered a linguistic environment that presents affordances for L2 acquisition. (See section 2.2.3.) Input can be oral or text. Ellis and Shintani (2014) describe simplified codes in oral and textual input. They refer to the phenomenon of caretaker-talk or foreigner talk as entailing proficient speakers of the TL simplifying the way they use a language when addressing learners with a limited proficiency. According to Ellis and Shintani research has shown that such modifications, which affect all levels of language, including phonology, lexis, grammar and discourse, make the TL easier to understand. Ellis and Shintani (2014) discuss research studies of Conrad (1989) and Griffiths (1990), illustrating that a slower speech rate affords L2 acquisition. Kim (2006) names elaboration and simplification as means of text modification. Ellis and Shintani (2014) describe simplification as a process of responding to the abilities of L2 learners, and aiding their comprehension and achievement of communicative purposes. They include glosses or paraphrasing as methods of text elaboration that clarify meaning. Kim (2006) points out that text simplification removes difficult linguistic elements, which is necessary for L2 development, whereas text elaboration makes input more comprehensible, while retaining linguistic complexity. Ellis and Shintani (2014) maintain that enhanced input increases the salience of linguistic forms, affording attention and linguistic processing of input. Ellis and Shintani list emphatic stress in spoken input, and boldfacing, italicizing, underlining, colouring and enlarged print in printed texts as methods for input enhancement. Pica (2013) also includes repetition (spoken text) and flooding (written text) as ways to enhance input by making certain linguistic forms abundant.

Processing theories describe input in terms of frequency and recency, increasing salience and affording noticing and uptake. According to Ellis and Shintani (2014) the incidental learning hypothesis advances that learners can learn new linguistic features simply through exposure to the L2 input, and without intention. Ellis and Shintani explicate that incidental learning is not the same as implicit learning, and does not suppose unconscious or subconscious processing, but only assumes that linguistic features are processed while the primary attention is allocated elsewhere, for instance on comprehending meaning. They maintain that the incidental learning hypothesis implies that learning is mostly associative. The frequency hypothesis elaborates on the notion of associative learning, stating that learning is the identification and storing of sounds, words and meaning sequences in the input (Ellis and Shintani, 2014:175). According to these two hypotheses learning is primarily exemplar-based, as opposed to rule-based, requiring extensive exposure to input for L2 acquisition. Ellis and Collins (2009) describe input frequency, recency and selective attention as key elements of associative learning. Ellis

and Collins distinguish between token frequency, which tallies specific items and is responsible for the learning of irregular forms, and type frequency, which identifies regular patterns in sound distribution and morphosyntax. With reference to the phenomenon of priming, Ellis and Collins maintain that lexical and syntactic choice are language processing that reflects recency effects. The effects of syntactic priming have been investigated, most notably by McDonough (McDonough, 2006, McDonough and Mackey, 2008, Kim and McDonough, 2008), who describes the speaker's tendency to repeatedly produce a previously encountered (spoken or heard) structure across successive utterances, despite the availability of other structures that can express the same meaning.

Empirical evidence in support of Krashen's input hypothesis is limited. In reviewing a few of the studies (Schmidt, 1983, Swain, 1985, Sato, 1990) that investigated Krashen's claims, Ortega (2009) asserts that although input is essential for L2 acquisition, it is not sufficient to ensure native-like grammar acquisition. Discussing Krashen and Terrel's (1983) views on input, Kim (2006) maintains that acquisition will not take place without comprehension of vocabulary, arguing that comprehensibility depends on the recognition of key semantic elements in the input. Investigating the effects of text modification on vocabulary acquisition, Kim (2006) found no significant gains with typographical enhancement. Kim found that implicit and explicit lexical elaboration aided meaning recognition of vocabulary. Kim further maintains that input enhancement, visually or acoustically, enhances the perceptual saliency of targeted features, but does not guarantee intake for processing. Pica (2013) supports this view. Discussing studies by Trahey and White (1998) and White (1993), she maintains that text enhancement and flooding have little impact on interlanguage development. Pica (2013) supports Long's (1996) views on input as providing positive evidence of L2 form in relation to meaning. However, Pica asserts that L2 learners also need negative evidence, which they can only access by producing output, while engaging in communication.

Although the role of input is mainly considered from a cognitive perspective on L2 learning, an affordances theory considers the phenomenon of nesting, explaining that affordances manifest differently in macro and micro contexts. Social affordances are prerequisites for individual affordances. From a social perspective, target language input first manifests in the social environment as an affordance for learning through vertical multilingualism, language policy and language curriculum. (See section 2.2.4.) Housen, Schoonjans, Janssens, Welcomme, Schoonheere and Pierrard (2011) describe the learning context as a socio-physical environment that varies in terms of the linguistic input and output opportunities which it

presents to the learner. They assert that high L2 prominence and very low L1 prominence in the input result in better L2 achievement and proficiency. (See section 2.3.3 for a further discussion of different learning contexts.) Considering the role of the social context of learning, Cenoz and Gorter (2008) argue that the linguistic environment, which includes all language in the environment, is a source of language input and affords opportunities for raising learners' awareness of the L2. However, Cenoz and Gorter point out that learners are not passive recipients of input, instead they selectively attend and construct meaning.

The comprehensible input hypothesis maintains that simplified, enriched input is a sure-fire language affordance. Associative theories support this view, however, provided extensive exposure to target language input. Yet, Long (2015) posits that L2 learners do not need simplified input, but instead require elaborated input afforded by interaction.

4.3.2 Interaction

Interaction involves language comprehension and a response. The input hypothesis does not mention output, but considers production skills to develop as a result of L2 acquisition (Ellis and Shintani, 2014). Supporting Swain's (1985) views, McDonough (2006) maintains that output encourages learners to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing, affording greater accuracy in language production. Ellis and Shintani (2014) discuss Long's interaction hypothesis (1996), maintaining its central claim is that negotiation of meaning, occurring when there is a breakdown in communication, affords incidental learning through modified interaction. According to McDonough (2006) the interaction hypothesis states that interaction facilitates L2 development by affording TL input (e.g. negative feedback), internal learner capacities (e.g. attention) and language output. Pica (2013) maintains that when learners produce language during interaction, cognitive processing allows them to notice the gap between their own interlanguage and the target L2 forms in the feedback, or to notice the hole in their interlanguage lacking forms to conceptualize a message with accuracy and appropriateness in the L2. SLA research supporting the value of interaction as a language affordance indicates context and age as important factors determining the type of input, negotiation of meaning and feedback learners are exposed to (Alcón Soler and Del Pilar García Mayo, 2008, Cekaite, 2008, Li, 2010, Mackey and Oliver, 2002, Oliver, Philp and Mackey, 2008, Philp, Mackey and Oliver, 2008, Philp and Duchesne, 2008, Van den Branden, 2008).

Interaction, including negotiation of meaning, affords comprehensible input and negative evidence, permitting learners to notice the gap in their performance. Alcón Soler and Del Pilar

García Mayo (2008) posit that L2 learners need positive and negative input, along with opportunities for meaningful output production. Del Pilar García-Mayo (2014) analyzes Long's (1996) interaction hypothesis, and sums up the main claim as asserting that modified interaction allows the matching of learners' competence with their linguistic needs through co-construction of comprehensible L2 input. According to Del Pilar García-Mayo, Long operationalized conversational adjustments as confirmation checks, clarification requests, and comprehension checks. Van den Branden (2008) maintains that negotiation of meaning affords comprehensible input for a L2 learner, opportunities to manipulate comprehensible output, and also feedback about their production attempts. He defines *negotiation of meaning* as the temporary break away from the main conversation in order to confirm mutual understanding, and when there is a communication breakdown, an attempt to repair it. However, as Pica (2013) points out, negotiation of meaning often directs the learner's attention at accurate communication of the content, and not at the accuracy of the grammatical forms. Alcón Soler and Del Pilar García Mayo (2008) support Pica's (1994) view of negotiation of form as being largely directed at lexical items, caused by a primary focus on comprehensibility of message. However, they maintain that the focus of attention affords learners to notice the gap between their production and the production of the more competent interlocutor. Pica (2013) further maintains that negotiation of form, such as prompts, which are negotiation signals that promote accuracy, and recasts, which are restatements of the understood message recoded in the accurate form, are abundant in L2 classrooms and in caregiver settings. She asserts that recasts in these settings mainly affords modification of phonological errors. Discussing negative evidence of phonological errors, Ellis and Shintani (2014) point out Pica's (1992) study proposing that negative evidence can also show learners how to segment their utterances, pushing them to modify their output and become more target-like. Pica (2013) describes corrective feedback as reactive negative evidence. Other forms of negative evidence include explicit instruction on L2 rules and focus on form. Different types of focus on form in task-based language learning and teaching are described in section 5.4.2, and applied to pedagogic practice affording noticing during task-based language teaching of young beginner L2 learners of isiXhosa in primary school intermediate phase, in chapter 7.

The interaction hypothesis called for research studies testing its claims, advancing that conversational adjustments negotiating meaning afford L2 development during interaction. According to Del Pilar García-Mayo (2014), Long's (1985) interaction hypothesis developed from a critical view of Krashen's input hypothesis established on descriptive research, instead

proposing a systematic approach to link conversational changes to the learners' L2 development. Subsequently, Alcón Soler and Del Pilar García Mayo (2008) point out, there have been numerous SLA research studies presenting evidence confirming that interaction affords L2 learning processes, including noticing the gap, feedback and modified output. Additionally, a number of studies have also found that interaction affords syntactic priming, leading to uptake and L2 development (Kim and McDonough, 2008, McDonough, 2006, McDonough and Mackey, 2008). Ortega (2009) reviews interaction meta-analyses of Keck et al. (2006) and Mackey and Goo (2007) that indicate the positive effect of interaction on L2 learning, pointing out that the findings suggest that the benefits of interaction on L2 learning increases over time with proficiency. Li's (2010) meta-analysis of research investigating the effectiveness of corrective feedback indicates that context plays an important role in the effectiveness of corrective feedback, as foreign language classrooms showed a larger effect than L2 learning settings. Nasaji's (2013) study also indicates the importance of the context for interaction in terms of the participation structure. The study found that incidental focus on form was most effective when it occurred in smaller groups, as compared to whole class. Students were also more inclined to interact in smaller groups.

Research investigating interaction in the instructional setting describes effective teaching practice for L2 learning with young learners of different age groups. Alcón Soler and Del Pilar García Mayo's (2008) research study of focus on form in a foreign language learning classroom investigated adolescent learners' noticing and uptake of lexical items during meaning-focused activities. They operationalized uptake as learners' incorporation of items after teacher's feedback, and also after several turns. They found a positive correlation between noticing and uptake, and some correlation between noticing and accurate TL use in the immediate post-test, but no correlation in the delayed post-test. Their research data suggests that successful uptake in the classroom is more likely when it is student initiated, than when it is teacher initiated. They advance that adolescent learners did not pay as much attention to the teacher's instruction, unless it was directed at the individual, matching their expressed learning needs. Philp, Mackey and Oliver (2008) describe the difference between child-adult interaction and peer interaction of young L2 learners. Philp, Mackey and Oliver maintain that adults, caregivers and teachers provide more negotiation of meaning through scaffolding and recasting, but peer interaction provides a context for practice. Philp and Duchesne (2008) found that the L2 learner in their study would limit her talk to what she was confident communicating about, and that this limited the TL input that the L2 learner received in a L2 immersion context. They further maintain that

peer interaction is important for providing positive evidence and for affording a context in which to use language, however, peer acceptance, personality factors and perceived competence affect children's opportunities to receive input and to test hypotheses regarding their own interlanguage, during output. Cekaite's (2008) study provides insight into how learning affordances are co-constructed through classroom interaction. Cekaite investigated interactional patterns of 7-10 year olds in a L2 classroom in order to analyze developing conversational skills. She found that learners employed verbal and nonverbal devices to compete for the teacher's attention, as well as employing formulaic language provided by the teacher's assignment talk. In his study (1997), Van den Branden also found that the primary school children were eager to negotiate meaning and to pick up on priming. Oliver, Philp and Mackey (2008) compared young (6-7 year olds) and older (11-12 year olds) learners' responses to teacher's input, guidance and feedback. They found that young learners were less able to produce the kind of output that a teacher can provide helpful examples for, and that the teacher's examples for the young learners were more directive and less collaborative. They found that teacher's input, when provided as instructions and examples during task-based interaction, were used as modified output by older learners, but not by young learners. Oliver, Philp and Mackey argue that older children's greater cognitive maturity enabled them to simultaneously hear, notice and modify their output, when they are provided with examples relevant to their immediate communicative needs, during interaction activities.

Summarizing this section, input and interaction afford L2 learning, although L2 development is moderated by internal factors that regulate attention. Ellis and Shintani (2014) encapsulate how interaction affords L2 development: interaction provides learners with comprehensible input through negotiation of meaning and form, while corrective feedback draws learners' attention to linguistic forms and affords them to notice the gap or the hole in their current L2 interlanguage, or affords pushed output of target-like forms, and output affords hypothesis testing to address the gaps or to self-correct their own output. The context of learning and the learners' age and proficiency, relating to learner's needs and goals, afford different opportunities for input and interaction.

4.4 LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

Describing, affording and assessing L2 development in young beginner learners is the central focus of this study. Language development is considered a cognitive process that is regulated by contextual factors (Housen, Schoonjans, Janssens, Welcomme, Schoonheere and Pierrard,

2011). In the L2 instructional context, classroom input and action are directed by methodology (Nunan, 2003). Ellis (2012) considers the teacher, instructional materials and the learners themselves as the main sources of input in the language classroom. Teacher talk and material design create external individual affordances, while accommodating internal learner factors, allowing noticing and L2 development when it regards the immediate, experiential needs of young learners (Hughes, 2010).

Traditionally L2 development and achievement are measured in terms of a native speaker model, considering components of fluency, accuracy and complexity in learner L2 production (Hall, Cheng and Carlson, 2006, Skehan, 1996). Hall and Cook (2012) support Levine's (2011) views, maintaining that L2 classrooms are multilingual environments despite monolingual policies, principles and norms. This study advances a multilingual model in line with the affordances theory for measuring L2 development that regards environmental and individual learner factors (Cenoz, 2013a), along with the learners' communicative goals and the learning context, when assessing language competence in terms of appropriate and effective TL behaviour or functional adequacy (Palotti, 2009).

Two central constructs in SLA literature and research emerge as affordances for L2 development in the instructional language learning setting: attention and complexity. These mechanisms are regarded with reference to graded cognitive complexity task-based learning sequences and noticing processes for L2 development (Robinson, 2010, 2011a). An analysis of these constructs and processes, integrating various theoretical perspectives and pertinent research findings, identifies and describes general and specific measures of complexity for investigating and affording L2 development in young beginner learners in the instructional setting. These measures are applied to a complexity analysis of communicative tasks for isiXhosa additional language learning in primary school intermediate phase, invoking the Cognition Hypothesis, in chapter 6.

4.4.1 Instructed second language acquisition

The context of learning differentiates learning experiences in terms of the input offered and actions encouraged, presenting negative and positive language affordances. However, comparing naturalistic and instructed language learning, Pica (2014) maintains that both naturalistic and instructed learning are characterized by the same cognitive processes of attention, awareness and comprehension. She refers to the work of Ellis (1984), Pienemann (1989) and Spada and Lightbown (1999), pointing out that conversational and instructional

interventions seem to have little impact on the developmental sequence and outcomes of sentence and question formation. Still, while maintaining a cognitive approach, Pica concedes that the L2 learning setting affords differences in learners' access to and mode of delivery for positive and negative evidence, the type of interventions that learners encounter, and the consequential difference in rate of acquisition and ultimate attainment.

The nature of the instructional L2 learning setting and its role in affording L2 development are of particular interest to this current study, however, multiple contextual factors, contributing to the differentiation that exists in language learning processes, make generalizations based on macro context problematic. Housen, Schoonjans, Janssens, Welcomme, Schoonheere and Pierrard (2011) call attention to the sociocontextual dimension of language learning. Maintaining that language learning is a sociocognitive process, which is dependent on contextual factors, they posit that distinctions between contexts based on macro contexts, such as natural and instructional or L2 learning and foreign language learning settings, are not acknowledging the great variation and scope that exist within any one of these contexts. A dynamic systems perspective on language learning considers the separate components of learning setting, language and learner in mutual relationships, while infinite factors attribute from within these different components affecting all others, bringing about change to the whole. These views are in line with the affordances theory applied to internal and external learner factors, supporting a dynamic, complex systems' conception of the particular as qualitatively different, but recognizing general patterns emerging. (See sections 4.2 and 4.3.)

A major factor differentiating instructed L2 acquisition from naturalistic L2 acquisition, however, is teacher intervention in L2 learning processes. (In section 7.3 teacher intervention affording noticing in task-based L2 learning is explored further.) Whether from a cognitive or social perspective, within the instructional context the central role of teachers in determining the quality and quantity of learning opportunities and the learning outcomes is advocated in current SLA literature (Corcoll, 2013, Ellis, 2012, Graves, 2008, Kumaravadivelu, 2006, McGrath, 2013, Spiro, 2013, Van den Branden, 2016, Wette, 2009). The purpose of this section is to identify language affordances in the instructional L2 learning setting that create opportunities for L2 development, including teacher talk, methodology and learning materials development.

4.4.1.1 Teacher talk

Teacher talk is a central component of L2 instruction. Lyster (2014) defines teacher talk as teachers' speech aimed at enhancing and structuring classroom discourse so as to facilitate language learning. Lyster (2014) reviews Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) IRF (Initiating move by teacher; Responding move by learner; Follow-up move by teacher) sequence of classroom discourse, and asserts that such unequal power relationships between teachers and learners still continue to dominate present day classrooms. Ellis (2012) points out that much of the initiating moves by teachers are in the form of questions, as it allows teachers to control the classroom interaction. According to Ellis (2012), despite individual variability and differences in teaching programmes, teachers' input dominates class time with instructions, questions and explanations.

Different theoretical perspectives in SLA investigate the role of teacher talk in the L2 instructional setting. Describing teacher talk, Ellis (2012) reviews Chaudron's (1988) findings, including that teachers afford L2 learning through their interaction by generally speaking louder and pronouncing more distinctly, speaking slower and taking longer pauses, using high-frequency words resulting in lower type-token ratio, using grammatical but shorter utterances, and employing more self-repetitions. Ellis posits that like foreigner or care-taker talk, teacher talk appears to be sensitive to learners' proficiency level, varying accordingly. These arguments support a sociocultural approach to investigating classroom interaction as scaffolding L2 learning. The notion of scaffolding presumes a specific relationship of an expert speaker assisting a novice speaker to perform a skill that the learner is unable to do independently. (See section 3.2.2.) Perceived as such by the L2 learner, teacher talk presents a positive language affordance. However, the reality of classrooms filled with numerous individual learners with varying learning needs and limited instructional time, for the most part, supports the affordances theory in a cognitive-interactionist perspective, considering teacher talk as affording comprehensible L2 input or positive evidence. The question then is how teacher talk can encourage noticing, learner output and interaction so as to afford L2 development. Anderson (2015) proposes an affordance approach to lesson planning allowing for various learning opportunities, while recognizing that individual learners perceive and react differently in accordance with their particular learning needs. Anderson maintains that teachers applying this approach reflect on the uptake of affordances in the classroom, matching the lesson process accordingly. (In section 7.4, this affordance approach to lesson planning is applied to pedagogic practice in the specific context of young beginner isiXhosa L2 learning.)

Significantly, teacher talk also includes negative evidence. In sections 3.5.1 and 4.3.2 the importance of negative evidence for noticing and L2 acquisition is motivated from the cognitive processing and interactionist approaches.

Research on teacher talk includes studies investigating the nature and effectiveness of negative evidence and different types of questions. In cognitive-interactionist theories of SLA, the teachers' interactional move that corrects a learner error is termed *corrective feedback* (Ellis, 2012). Li (2010) maintains that corrective feedback affords negative evidence and noticing of linguistic items. Ellis (2012) states that research indicates that although teachers have very definite ideas about when and how to provide corrective feedback, their actual teaching practices are determined by the instructional context, the specific situation and the individual learner. Ellis distinguishes between implicit feedback and explicit feedback, which may either be input-providing or output-prompting. Implicit corrective feedback strategies include recasts, repetition and clarification requests. Explicit corrective feedback strategies include explicit correction, metalinguistic clues and elicitation. Li (2010) conducted a meta-analysis of 33 primary studies investigating the effectiveness of corrective feedback, in SLA. Li concluded that in general, corrective feedback showed a medium effect, which was maintained over time. The meta-analysis distinguishes between explicit and implicit corrective feedback, indicating that explicit feedback was more effective than implicit feedback for facilitating L2 acquisition, in both immediate and short-delayed post-tests, but implicit feedback produced a larger effect size in long-delayed post-tests. Ellis (2012) maintains the central role of questions in the instructional language setting. Ellis reviews research studies of Brock (1986), Long and Crooks (1991) and White (1992), indicating that referential questions or open questions afford significantly longer learner responses or learner output, than display or closed questions.

L1 and metalanguage use are contentious issues in instructed L2 settings that support a communicative approach in L2 learning and teaching. However, in the language classroom in schools, metalanguage is usually considered both a learning tool and a learning outcome for older learners, while learners' experience related knowledge of the nature of language also permits metalinguistic awareness in very young learners (Nicholas and Lightbown, 2008). Discussing the use of metalanguage by teachers, Ellis (2012) defines the concept as language used to talk about language (2012:131). Barac and Bialystok (2011) maintain that developing metalinguistic knowledge in learners, namely thinking about language, is one of the main purposes of language teaching in schools. Hughes (2010) supports this notion, arguing that young learners should be told as soon as they are cognitively able to understand how a language

works, maintaining that the more young learners are able to talk about a language, the more they can interact with and learn about it. However, Hughes emphasizes the primacy of an initial ability to communicate and to use the TL. Reviewing research on the use of metalanguage by L2 teachers, Ellis (2012) points out that it is more common practice with adult L2 learners. Ellis and Shintani (2014) discuss Hu's (2010) study identifying some of the advantages of metalanguage knowledge, including supporting metalinguistic awareness, enabling explicit discussions of language form, as well as assisting teachers to link new linguistic knowledge with learners' previously acquired linguistic knowledge. In her study, Corcoll (2013) identified language awareness resulting from teaching practices using learners' L1 along with the TL, in L2 subject teaching with young learners (7-8 years old). She advances an enhanced relationship between work and play in terms of the level of cognitive demand and motivation, based on the enjoyment and metalinguistic awareness she observed in the learners.

While L1 use is generally discouraged in L2 classrooms, in reality this is a difficult principle to enforce in classes where the learners share a common L1. Ellis and Shintani (2014) maintains the inevitability of L1 use in L2 classrooms where learners share a first language. On the other hand, L1 use in the L2 classroom presents a conflict in teaching objectives, which Ellis and Shintani (2014) identify as depriving learners of maximum TL input against lowering L2 anxiety and affording willingness to communicate. According to Ellis and Shintani (2014), L2 teachers recognize the value of teaching L2 through the medium of the TL, yet regularly uses the L1, especially for metatalk. According to Hall and Cook (2012), L1 use or the use of own-language and translations are common phenomena in classrooms where learners and a non-native L2 teacher share a L1 language. They maintain that L1 use might be effectively channeled for certain classroom functions to afford L2 learning. Hall and Cook support principled L1 use or code switching, while emphasizing the importance of TL input through maximum exposure, and TL output for practice. Supporting Macaro's (2009) views of optimal L1 use in L2 learning and teaching, Hall and Cook (2012) advance that principled L1 use relies on the teacher balancing input modification and translation, so as to best afford L2 learning. Recognizing social perspectives on L1 use, they point out that research indicates great variation amongst teachers' L1 use in similar settings and/or in different lessons, as well as variation in a teacher's L1 use during different lesson components. Hall and Cook (2012) agree with Widdowson's (2003) viewpoint that since L1 use is natural and inevitable in L2 classrooms, it should be investigated and applied as a pedagogic resource. Lee and Macaro (2013) investigated L1 use for vocabulary acquisition, pointing out that vocabulary teaching is the most

cited function of L1 use in research investigating this phenomenon in L2 classrooms. In this study, Lee and Macaro operationalized code switching as brief switches to the L1 to communicate the meaning of words while maintaining the TL as the general medium of communication in the classroom. They compared 12 year old English foreign language learners at near beginner stage of acquisition with adult university students who have much higher proficiency levels. Their control groups were taught by native speaking teachers who were unable to use the learners' L1, and who used TL definitions or paraphrasing to explain new vocabulary. They found that both the age or proficiency groups benefited from code switching for vocabulary acquisition, but especially the young beginner learners. The young beginner learners were also more motivated, and generally expressed strong feelings against monolingual instruction, operationalized as the exclusive use of the TL for instruction. Hall and Cook (2012) further consider a number of studies which advance that L1 use can facilitate cognitive processing. They point out studies like Alegría de la Colina and Garcia Mayo (2009), which investigated the effects of private speech conducted in the L1, advancing the reduction of language processing load for learners. Hall and Cook also support Macaro's (2006) views of L1 use as reducing the demands on learners' working memory and facilitating cognitive processing of other input, maintaining that the L1 can be used as a learning strategy and a communication strategy.

Pedagogically-based code switching or systematic, sustainable translanguaging associated with L1 use are advanced for developing cross-linguistic awareness and academic literacies, supporting L2 learning and multilingualism (Cenoz and Gorter, 2017, Corcoll, 2013, Heugh, 2013). Hall and Cook maintain that L2 acquisition is afforded when teachers draw the learners' attention to similarities and differences between languages, and in this way, coordinate and reinforce learning strategies across languages. According to Cummins (2007), there is an interdependence across the languages of a person and a common underlying proficiency, which allow for the transfer of cognitive or academic, literacy-related proficiency. Cummins discusses the principle of learning that depends on previous knowledge and language experience, which are used as references and are activated to understand new knowledge. Cummins asserts that learning efficiencies are afforded when teachers explicitly draw learners' attention to differences and similarities between their languages, as well as reinforcing language skills and effective learning strategies across languages. (See section 7.2.2.1.2 for an application of these views in cross-language interpretation tasks for isiXhosa L2 learning.) With reference to Butzkamm and Caldwell's (2009) views, Hall and Cook also maintain the use of the L1 as a

pedagogic resource facilitating understanding of how meaning is created in the L2. However, they support Butzkamm and Caldwell's principle of creating and maintaining a L2 atmosphere by using the TL for normal day-to-day classroom functions. Hall and Cook advance that pedagogic L1 use is important for noticing and focus on form. (In section 7.2.2.2.1 this principle is applied to focused comprehension tasks, describing an instruction-giving task for young beginner isiXhosa L2 learners.)

The affordances theory in L2 learning and teaching motivates learner autonomy and the explicit teaching of learning strategies (see section 2.2.2). Learning strategies are steps learners consciously take to achieve a learning goal (Oxford, 2014). Early SLA research studies aimed to describe the qualities of a good language learner. According to Oxford (2014), Rubin (1975) amongst others attempted to identify qualities and strategies of successful language learners, but Griffiths (2008) concluded that many different types of effective L2 learners exist. According to Ortega (2009), Gan et al. (2004) found that good language learners are goal directed and flexible, employing a range of strategies adjusted according to context-specific needs and objectives. Ellis and Shintani (2014) describe communication strategies as conscious, problem solving techniques that L2 learners use to aid L2 interaction, and can be exploited to advance learning opportunities. From a cognitive-interactionist perspective on language learning, communication strategies and L2 learning strategies are not dissimilar in function, albeit different types of L2 learning strategies. Gunning and Oxford (2014) define learner strategies as the self-regulated management and control of own L2 learning. The use of learning strategies relates to intrinsic motivation by way of self-regulation and learner autonomy. Ortega (2009) describes self-regulation as involving creative and conscious efforts that address many facets of action control, as well as regulating thoughts and emotions in order to cope with complex challenges. A perspective that relates learning strategies to intrinsic motivation may appeal to teachers who seek to empower learners within a learner-centered approach to instruction. Plonsky (2011) defines L2 learning strategy instruction as explicit instruction on specific practices or techniques that can be employed autonomously to improve L2 learning or use.

L2 learning strategies is explicit learning, and communication strategies are explicit knowledge, yet these strategies can also facilitate implicit L2 learning by affording more interaction. Gunning and Oxford (2014) describe L2 learning strategies as goal-directed, having a meta-cognitive component, involving learners directing attentional resources selectively, requiring learner responsibility, and also affording active participation in the learning process by allowing

learners to select strategies for overcoming communication and learning problems. Ellis and Shintani (2014) maintain a narrower view of learning strategies, distinguishing between language-learning strategies, which are used to master the linguistic properties of a L2, and skill-learning strategies, which aid learners to improve L2 speaking, listening, writing and reading. Ellis (2012) discusses O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) popular learner strategies typology that identifies three basic categories for strategies: metacognitive (decisions about selective attention to specific aspects of language input to aid comprehension), cognitive (e.g. inferencing) and social-affective (asking for assistance). Maleki (2007) describes communication strategies as explicit knowledge used to solve communication problems stemming from learners' inadequate L2 knowledge for attaining their communication goal. Maleki gives examples of communication strategies, including appealing for assistance, paraphrasing and securing an opportunity to communicate. (In section 7.3.2.2, teaching formulaic language sequences is motivated as supporting communication strategies and affording interaction during isiXhosa L2 task-based learning.) In sum, Plonsky (2011) includes all studies that investigate learning strategies, communication strategies and listening strategies as contributing to a large body of experimental research investigating L2 strategy instruction.

SLA research studies illustrate the benefits of learning strategies for L2 development. Plonsky's (2011) meta-analysis of 61 studies indicates a positive and linear relationship between learning strategy use and proficiency. Plonsky found a larger effect for young learners and in L2 learning settings than for older learners and foreign language learning settings. Gunning and Oxford (2014) investigated the effectiveness of strategy instruction amongst children in a L2 learning setting. They concluded that strategy awareness and use were enhanced after instruction, and resulted in significant gains in oral interaction and the development of oral competency. Gunning and Oxford employed the Problem-Solving Strategy Intervention Model and found that strategy use lead to greater perseverance in L2 interaction. Maleki (2007) found that communication strategies are pedagogically effective with university students in a foreign language learning setting, and that teaching communicative strategies facilitated language learning. In Maleki's study the students were able to maintain conversations better, and, consequently, received more input. The students were also able to transfer communication strategies to new situations, and the results of vocabulary, reading and writing tests indicated L2 development. Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010) investigated the effects of teaching listening strategies. They taught university L2 learners metacognitive, process-based listening strategies, and found a significant effect for listening comprehension,

as well as a growing learner awareness of the metacognitive processes underlying successful L2 listening.

Summarizing this section, teachers provide comprehensible TL input (positive evidence), corrective feedback (negative evidence), and push learner output with open or referential questions, affording L2 development of learners in the instructional L2 setting. However, considering that multilingualism is a qualitatively different language system than monolingualism, supports the use of metatalk as well as learners' first language as an additional language learning resources. Teachers also promote learner autonomy and support intrinsic motivation by explicitly teaching communication and learning strategies, affording learner interaction in the TL that facilitates implicit learning.

4.4.1.2 Methodology

In education, methodology refers to a branch of pedagogics that analyzes and evaluates teaching methods (www.dictionary.reference.com). Spiro (2013) terms the theories and systems, which underlie teachers' choices, methodology, and distinguishes it from methods, which are the actual teaching activities and procedures. In these terms, methodology is a general approach to teaching that is informed by theoretical perspectives and research findings, whereas methods are sensitive to the context of teaching and learners' particular needs. Ellis and Shintani (2014) endorse the view that the method construct limits teaching, when it is top-down prescriptive without regard for the specific socio-cultural context and individual learners' needs. Kumaravadivelu (2006) agrees with this perspective, arguing for a postmethod pedagogy. Graves (2008) maintains that the syllabus displaced method as a way to conceptualize teaching, during the late 1980's. Graves advances a post-syllabus era, arguing that the classroom context decides the optimal curriculum enactment, relying on cooperative teacher and learner innovation. Spiro (2013) discusses the views of Schön (1983) regarding reflective practice, describing teaching as an on-going decision-making process about the teaching practice, based on a teacher's professional judgement. The literature emphasizes the central role of the teacher in electing, applying and reflecting on teaching methods, so as to best afford L2 learning in a particular context (Ellis, 2013, Ellis and Shintani, 2014, Graves, 2008, Kumaravadivelu, 2006, Van den Branden, 2016).

Language teaching presupposes a theory of how languages are learnt best, and about the teacher's role in the learning process. Spiro (2013) explores the question of how teachers' beliefs of language and learning affects the actual classroom processes, and concludes that

teachers' decisions are mainly based on their understanding of a particular learning situation, constituting a particular methodology. On the other hand, Spiro states that methods are the product of hypotheses and theories about how language is learnt and what the teacher's role is in the learning process, including beliefs about whether the teacher is mainly a facilitator of comprehensible input, an interlocutor, or an instructor, or whether language is naturally acquired or taught, and if language should be taught in a particular order of acquisition. For instance, the teachability hypothesis that is an application of the processability theory advances how the effect of teaching intervention is constrained by learners' current state of development (Pienemann, 2015). (Pienemann's Processability Theory is discussed further in section 4.4.2.1.). Furthermore, Spiro (2013) points out the difficulty of matching a language syllabus with learners' developmental cycles, maintaining that learners' progress is non-linear, the sets of linguistic features for the developmental stages are not discreet, and the rate of acquisition is variable. Therefore, Spiro concludes that a sensitive integration and balancing of methods permit more learners' engagement in communicative tasks, affording form-meaning mappings.

Task-based methodology informs context sensitive pedagogic decisions, including the choice between implicit or explicit teaching practices, the use of the L1 in classes, and learner-centeredness. Analyzing task-based methodological procedures, Ellis (2003) identifies procedures for converting the syllabus into lessons, allowing different participatory structures. Ellis maintains that a task is a workplan for learner activity, and often includes descriptions of teaching materials. Ellis suggests different methodological possibilities relating to task-based teaching, maintaining that teachers have to make decisions based on their understanding of their particular teaching context. Kumaravadivelu (2006) discusses different perspectives within task-based language teaching, pointing out that a task can be applied within different methodologies and, therefore, is not linked to one particular method. Ellis (2003) asserts that teachers' decisions regarding methodology should be principled and purposeful. In chapter 5 task-based teaching principles are discussed further.

Just like variations in task-based methodology, the best teaching method for a language lesson is also determined by the particular L2 learning context, including the learning setting, teaching objectives and learners' needs and goals. Ellis's (2012) conceptualization of the method construct is pedagogic in nature, as specifying a set of principles and techniques for directing the teaching activities. Kumaravadivelu (2006) maintains that the term methods is used to refer to what theorists propose, and to what teachers do in practice, but that these are clearly different concepts. Discussing a number of comparative method studies, Ellis points out two problems

with the method construct: firstly, the practical application of any method depends on the teacher's personal interpretation, resulting in teaching variations, and leading to a gap between theory and practice, and secondly, a method aims at describing the best way of teaching in global terms, but does not take account of the specific needs of the individual learner in a particular context. Ellis concludes that for these reasons comparative method studies are unreliable, maintaining they are flawed with irregularities and methodological shortcomings. Instead, referring to recommendations made by Allen et al. (1990) and Long (1984), Ellis (2012) advances that classroom observations and process evaluation are better suited for evaluating and comparing actual teaching methods. Furthermore, Ellis and Shintani (2014) point out that at an empirical level, the comparative method studies have not been able to provide clear evidence of one method being superior to another for facilitating L2 learning.

Summarizing these views, methodology is considered a flexible approach to teaching that is based on L2 learning theories, and applied to a specific context with its particular learning needs and goals. On the other hand, teaching methods are techniques that shape into learning activities as a result of a process involving interacting components, namely setting, teacher, participants and language. Kumaravadivelu (2006) prefers to refer to a postmethod pedagogy. Kumaravadivelu (2006) discusses Stern's (1992) Three-dimensional Framework, which places dichotomous issues in SLA methods on a strategy continuum: L1 and L2 use in teaching, explicit and implicit approaches to teaching, and form-focussed and meaning-focussed instruction. Kumaravadivelu argues for a context sensitive approach, which rejects the one-method-for-all-situations approach. However, for such an approach to be applied successfully, he maintains the importance of the teacher's effectiveness in terms of professional judgement and decision-making. Spiro (2013) states that the term post-methods has evolved to describe an educational approach which places the learner and the learning context at the center of teachers' decision-making. Spiro encapsulates this approach as implying that every teacher needs to be a methodologist, who re-evaluates teaching methods within every new context, considering the time constraints, available resources, syllabus requirements and lesson content, the teacher and learners' competencies and needs, as well as the cultural and educational setting.

4.4.1.3 Materials development

Materials are the teacher's tools of trade in the instructed second language learning setting. Teachers use diverse kinds of teaching materials, but also apply materials differently in accordance with their teaching objectives and teaching context. Pedagogic and SLA literature

describe how teaching resources reflect methodology and are applied in accordance with teachers' beliefs and pedagogic goals (McGrath, 2013, Tomlinson, 2013). In this section, different ways of adapting and developing materials are examined, specifically with the young learner in mind, so as to afford L2 development.

Teaching materials include textbooks, commercial reference material and practice materials, teacher-prepared materials, games, as well as visual representations or real objects (McGrath, 2013). However, supporting a much broader view of teaching materials, McGrath (2013) further includes anything that can be used to facilitate the learning of a language. He maintains that materials can be made by learners, be a written or recorded format of the TL, or even be physical demonstrations used to convey meaning or facilitate language learning. McGrath states that textbooks are often referred to as course books that contain a learning programme, provide teaching and learning support and reduce lesson preparation time. Conversely, McGrath (2013) quotes McElroy (1934) as stating that the importance of the textbook lessens with better teacher preparation. Spiro (2013) discusses Thornbury's Dogme approach in view of the general overreliance on teaching aids, and materials filling up lesson time with commercially produced activities at the expense of meaningful and relevant learning opportunities. She describes the Dogme approach as advocating the use of teacher-produced materials, or any resources available in the class or brought by the learners. Tomlinson (2013) investigates commercial teaching materials, concluding that there exist huge gaps between applied linguistic theory and materials development practice. He advances that research should focus on practical ways of applying attested language learning theory to the development of course books. McGrath maintains that although in theory teachers are expected to adapt materials to the specific needs of their learners, the reality of the learners' and their parents' expectations, the institutional authorities and regulations, as well as standardized tests or high-stakes external examinations relying on the course book, place a responsibility on teachers' professionalism that creates conflicting pedagogic objectives.

Pedagogic practice and SLA theory identify different methods for materials development. McGrath (2013) investigates how teachers apply commercially produced or prescribed teaching materials, describing three forms of adaptation: omission, addition and change. McGrath further maintains the need for supplementation, when the teacher identifies a lack in the prescribed course book in terms of relevance, or in relation to the learners' needs. He posits that the main reasons for adaptation and supplementation are to contextualize the materials, to compensate for perceived lacks in content or skills, and to furnish learners particular needs and

wants. With reference to the views of Grey (2000), Sampson (2009) and Ravelonahary (2007), McGrath (2013) summarizes some of the ways in which teachers adapt materials, including reordering content, replacing inappropriate examples, converting information from one text type to another, culturally localizing texts, simplifying texts with easier vocabulary, including pictures, and providing summaries or explanations, or increasing the complexity of texts. Hughes (2010) maintains the importance of challenging activities for generating and upholding learners' interest and motivation. The importance of learning materials with appropriate cognitive complexity for affording language development is explored further in section 4.4.3. McGrath (2013) discusses the studies of Richards (1998) and Sampson (2009), indicating that teaching experience influences how and when teachers adapt teaching materials. Experienced teachers adapted teaching materials more than inexperienced teachers, and were generally found more flexible with regard to time constraints and their learners' needs. McGrath concludes that experienced teachers improvise in the way they use materials with regard to the context and learners.

Recognizing the particular learning needs of young learners, Hughes (2010) maintains that teaching materials have to be cognitively and linguistically appropriately adapted. Hughes advances topic-based, activity-based cross-curricular materials development for young learners. Hughes further maintains that the holistic nature of the primary school curriculum means that the language teacher has to present an all-round linguistic and cognitively developmental syllabus. Describing experiential learning as learning or discovering things by actually doing them, Hughes posits that learning opportunities should be exploratory and experiential. Citing supportive studies reporting learners' positive reactions to the use of their own creations as teaching material, McGrath maintains the potential of learner contributions in primary schools (2013:165). He also regard sociocultural appropriateness, maintaining that local materials, such as teacher-developed, learner-generated and authentic materials motivate language learning. Maintaining the importance of young learners finding a challenge in every learning activity, Hughes advances that learning materials must be purposeful and appropriately cognitively challenging for the learners' age and linguistic level. Hughes explicates that materials for young learners must support their understanding of the L2 and the acquisition of any new cognitive or linguistic concepts. She maintains that with young learners, topics should be relevant, immediate and concrete. Hughes further posits the importance of recycling language in learning materials, offering meaningfully repetitive input in the learning environment, affording practice without boredom. In section 7.3.2.1, specific methodological

activities for young learners describe the use of learner-generated materials (target task 1) and cross-curricular learning resources (target tasks 11 and 12) for isiXhosa L2 task-based teaching.

Materials development is a necessary condition for valid language learning assessment. Hughes (2010) maintains that assessment materials must be well designed, so as to measure and reflect the individual learner's ability in the TL. Hughes posits the importance of formative assessment with young learners, explicating that formative assessment material development aims at contributing to the teacher's understanding of the young learner's linguistic needs, while summative assessment material development aims at measuring learning programme outcomes. Considering language learning programme outcomes, Hughes (2010) discusses the views of Cummins (1979) differentiating between two types of language proficiencies: basic interpersonal communicate skills and cognitive academic language proficiency. Hughes maintains that summative assessment materials must represent the learning materials in content and activity, while also accommodating different individual learning styles. Hughes supports continuous, informal assessments for young learners, as well as the use of student portfolios to encourage learner responsibility and ownership.

Summarizing the main views in this section, affordances for language learning, with particular reference to young learners, were identified in the instructed language learning context. Teacher talk affords L2 development when it provides positive evidence as comprehensible input and negative evidence through corrective feedback and focus on form. L1 use and metatalk afford understanding and cognitive processing by reducing the demands on the working memory. It is argued that learning strategy instruction, including communication strategies, affords L2 learning and development by promoting active learner involvement and participation. With young learners, teaching formulaic language sequences affords task participation, interaction and implicit learning. With regard to methodology and teaching methods, experienced and informed teachers can make the best decisions regarding appropriate teaching methods and materials development for their particular learning contexts, while reflecting regularly on learning affordances and their own teaching practices. Teachers are required to make principled and purposeful decision regarding teaching methodology. Tasks are useful and adaptable teaching and learning tools within different methodologies in the instructed language learning setting. Every teacher needs to be a materials developer in order to provide appropriate and effective language learning and assessment input, matching L2 learner and learning needs within a particular teaching contexts.

4.4.2 Measuring second language development

Measuring L2 development involves comparing past, current and future language competencies. Ortega (2009) distinguishes between L2 competence and L2 development. She describes L2 competence as referring to the learner's mental, linguistic representations of the L2, while development refers to the processes and mechanisms by which these representations change over time. The affordances theory considers measuring L2 performance with regard to available language affordances to provide insight into the complex and dynamic mechanisms and processes of L2 development.

Ortega states that development studies traditionally focused on the L2 grammar or morphosyntax. However, maintaining that the process of becoming a more competent L2 user includes more dimensions of communication, such as phonology, discourse pragmatics and vocabulary, Ortega recognizes the importance of context. These sociocontextual dimensions of language, including cultural knowledge, influencing L2 production and comprehension impacts on L2 development. In this section L2 development is described from a traditional perspective, which considers the ideal native speaker model to be the norm, as well as from a multilingual perspective, which considers a broader view of development and competence (Selinker, 2014, Hulstijn, Ellis and Eskildsen, 2015, Pienemann, 2015, Cenoz, 2013b, Gorter and Cenoz, 2017, Hall, Cheng and Carlson, 2006). It is suggested that L2 development is complex and dynamic, depending on individual and contextual factors. In order to measure L2 development, three goals are considered: fluency, accuracy and complexity. This triadic framework was first introduced by Skehan (1996) as a framework for implementing task-based instruction. In task-based teaching and learning Palotti (2009) further advances functional adequacy as an overarching goal and factor determining L2 performance.

An analysis of the literature presenting different perspectives in SLA on the mechanisms, processes and measures of L2 development informs principled decisions regarding the creation of language affordances in the instructed L2 learning setting. The identification of general and specific measures of complexity in L2 performance is motivated for investigating and analyzing communicative tasks affording and assessing language development, in young beginner isiXhosa L2 learners in primary school intermediate phase. (See chapter 6.)

4.4.2.1 The native speaker model for measuring L2 development

The native speaker model measures L2 development with reference to L1 competence. L2 learners and teachers generally regard L1 proficiency as a learning goal, noticing the gap in

their current ability motivating L2 development. Influential language learning theories inform this perspective, and pedagogic practices generally perpetuates such idealistic goals. Research studies regarding a native speaker model provide insight into L2 development phenomena. In this section, an overview of theories established within the native speaker model is analysed, informing an alternative model for measuring L2 development that is in line with a contemporary holistic and dynamic systems view regarding the multilingual context, multicompetence and individual learner factors differentiating L2 learning processes. This holistic view of competence and the multilingual model is discussed in the following section (section 4.4.2.2).

The ideal native speaker was first introduced by Chomsky in the early 1960's as representing L1 competence or the perfect implicit knowledge of the L1, yet, which the L1 linguistic performance only partly reflects (Atkinson, 2014). Cenoz (2013b) states that the native speaker is traditionally used as a reference in SLA and Bilingualism studies. Ultimately, the native speaker reference provides a stable measurement in terms of linguistic rules and regularities of the perfect endstate for language development. Hulstijn (2015) points out that all human languages are characterized by regularities or categories and rules. Meisel (2014) maintains that the process of language acquisition implicates that language changes over time, from the initial to the final state. Three prominent theories regard language development in terms of a native speaker model: generative theory, processability theory and interlanguage theory. Hulstijn (2015) discusses the generative approach, which assumes that the initial state of language learning is an abstract, innate linguistic knowledge and that language acquisition is the process of selecting and conforming with the correct TL norm. According to Pienemann (2015), the processability theory relies on a very limited innateness, but states that initial hypotheses predict a universal processing hierarchy, which constrains language development. Ortega maintains that an interlanguage is the language system that a language learner construct at any point in development (2009:110), however, according to Selinker (2014) the interlanguage is never perfect as it deviates in structured ways from the TL norms.

Interlanguage is a term that is regularly used to refer to the current state of a L2 learner's developing communicative performance. According to Ortega (2009), the study of learner language originated in 1972, in the work of Selinker who coined the term *interlanguage*. Selinker (2014) describes an interlanguage as a non-native language, which is created and spoken when there is language contact. Selinker maintains that interlanguages are independent of both the L1 and the TL, though there exists great variation within individual interlanguage

production throughout different contexts and linguistic domains. According to Selinker, learning strategies and communication strategies are central processes in interlanguage creation. Along with the term interlanguage, Selinker (1972) coined the term *fossilization* (Selinker, 2014). Selinker (2014) explains fossilization as the cessation of interlanguage development in spite of extensive exposure to TL input and considerable opportunities for interaction. He asserts that practice opportunities can only activate the interlanguage, but that no amount of practice can make the interlanguage perfect in terms of the TL norms. Selinker further maintains that fossilization varies within an individual's interlanguage production, depending on the context of use. Interlanguage research that attempts to understand the L2 learner's cognition and acquisition processes can be divided into two schools: the generative school and the usage-based schools. There are a number of researchers, belonging to the latter, who would contest the notion of cessation of language development. (See sections 3.2.3.2.2 and 4.4.2.2 for discussions regarding L2 development from usage-based perspectives.)

Slabakova (2013) describes L2 development from a generative perspective, pointing out that Universal Grammar principles can be transferred from the native language, while certain parameter values that are different from the native language's parametric settings, but available from Universal Grammar, are still potential sources of L2 knowledge. Slabakova argues that syntax, semantics and phonetics components, which are mostly universal throughout languages, are usually acquired more easily compared to functional morphology, which is subject to more parametric variation, presenting developmental delays. After reviewing a number of studies that investigated the acquisition order of syntax as compared to functional morphology, Slabakova asserts that syntax is easier to acquire than functional morphology. Slabakova maintains that functional morphology presents syntactic and semantic information, and, as such, demands more cognitive processing resources. Slabakova further maintains that processing studies with native, low educated adults, children and L2 learners confirm the difficulty of functional morphology in production, as well as comprehension. From a generative perspective, Slabakova (2013) advances that practicing functional morphology in unambiguous, meaningful contexts affords L2 development.

The processability theory describes interlanguage development according to grammatical stages. Hulstijn (2015) argues that Pienemann's processability theory is the most specific developmental theory of SLA. He maintains that there has been no falsifications of the processability theory's claims, despite a considerable body of research conducted within this framework. Pienemann (2015) states that the innate basis of the processability theory assumes

a one-to-one mapping of semantic roles, as well as the basic notion of predicate argument structure in the initial state of language development. According to Pienemann, the processability theory describes a hierarchy of mapping processes that predicts explicitly the sequence in which the mapping processes and grammar develop in L2 learners (2015:145). Pienemann (2015) maintains that this hierarchy restrains learners' grammars according to the stage of their processing capacity. He further maintains that the processability hierarchy, including the six stages of L2 development, is universal, but variation in learners' interlanguages at any particular developmental stage occurs when learners pragmatically avoid processing restrictions. The teachability hypothesis is described by Pienemann as an application of the processability hypothesis, claiming that the effect of teaching interventions is constrained by the learner's current stage of development. A processability theory perspective on L2 development views L2 acquisition as determined by emergence criteria, while development is measured by the increased complexity of processing prerequisites.

To summarize this section, a native speaker model measuring L2 development focuses on the emergence of a TL grammar, describing competence in terms of the monolingual's language performance that represents the TL norms. L2 learners' inability to conform to the TL rules is considered a deficiency. This view is expressed by Selinker (2014) maintaining that without fossilization there will not be SLA, but only language acquisition. Hulstijn (2015) describes a shift in the focus of L2 development over the last decade. He posits that research has become increasingly interested in the acquisition sequence of a single phenomenon or a set of related phenomena, rather than the order in which different structures of the TL are mastered at target-like control. Hulstijn further maintains that the focus is not as much on mastery, but on emergence of TL structures. Finally, he concludes that the causal factors previously emphasized, including perceptual salience, semantic complexity, syntactic category, morphophonological regularity and frequency, are replaced by a primary focus on processing efficiency. These views attempt to describe a prototype model of L2 development, providing insight into general L2 developmental patterns and learning mechanisms, and yet, acknowledging variability in individual L2 performance.

4.4.2.2 A multilingual model for measuring L2 development

In this section, a multilingual model for measuring L2 development is described that is context sensitive and supports Cenoz's (2013b) focus on multilingualism. It considers the sum of a learner's previous language experience as a significant factor in L2 development (Cenoz,

2013b, Flynn, Foley and Vinnitskaya, 2004). Cenoz (2013b) states that most multilingualism or TLA studies take a monolingual focus using the native speaker as a reference when measuring the TL proficiency. Cenoz (2013b) discusses the views of Cook (2007) and Grojean (2008), pointing out that the linguistic knowledge of a bilingual and L2 user is different from that of a monolingual, rendering them incomparable. Cenoz (2013b) maintains that previous language experience affords L2 learning due to general language learning skills and a broader linguistic repertoire. The latter affords morphosyntactic development and language comprehension, especially with typologically related languages. A multilingual model also considers learners' L2 learning goals, communicative needs and the context of use, when describing L2 competence and measuring L2 development (De Bot, 2004, Hall, Cheng and Carlson, 2006, Haenni Hoti, Heinzmann, Müller, Oliviera, Wicki and Werlen, 2011, Palotti, 2009). A usage-based view of multicompetence considers the relevance of different types of communication skills, modes and competencies, including language comprehension and production, lexis, register and genre literacies when measuring L2 development, regarding the type of input in relation with learning goals presented in the learner's particular communicative context (Hall, Cheng and Carlson, 2006, Ortega, 2009).

A focus on multilingualism investigates the dynamic interaction between all the languages of an individual, and not one language at a time (Cenoz, 2013b). Cenoz proposes focus on multilingualism viewing multilingual competence as qualitatively different from several monolingual competences in one. As was described in section 3.3.3, two factors emerge as significant for the interaction between the languages of the multilingual: language typology and learner proficiency. Falk and Bardel (2010) maintain that typological factors, including genetic relatedness, shared language structures and psychotypology, afford language transfer from a background language to the TL. Pfenninger (2011) posits that learners make use of existing language knowledge when they experience a gap in their TL knowledge, although cross-linguistic transfer decreases with increased TL proficiency. Falk and Bardel's (2011) and Pfenninger's (2011) studies advance that syntactic transfer is possible from any of the previously learnt languages, but that a high proficiency is necessary in such a language. If a L2 is not yet automatized, it may interact with the TL based on the L2 status factor (Falk and Bardel, 2010). At lexical level, De Bot (2004) maintains that usage, recency and proficiency level effect the on-line processing time in the multilingual lexicon. Falk and Bardel (2010) describe cross-linguistic influence at lexical level to include false friends and construction attempts. Dowling (2011) maintains that code switching is not necessarily due to poor levels

of proficiency, but could result from conceptual gaps. According to Clark (2004) languages differ in how they represent experiences with some languages offering more terms than others for particular domains. Clark maintains that children first set up conceptual representations and then set up linguistic representations for talking about experience, with research findings indicating that children retain both representations throughout life. As the linguistic representation of different languages determine the way people talk about experiences, multilinguals are able to express more varied perspectives and foci on experiences. Rast (2010) supports many of Cenoz's proposals regarding focus on multilingualism, asserting that cross-linguistic studies need to consider the L2 learner's existing knowledge, the context of use and the goals of communication.

In the instructional setting, language development, literacy development and cognitive development are integrated and integral processes of school curricula. Cenoz (2013b) considers the pedagogic implications of focus on multilingualism, maintaining that proficiency in the TL must be measured in relation to proficiency in other languages of the multilingual. Cummins (1979) advances the importance of L1 literacy and additive bilingualism in schools for supporting cognitive and linguistic knowledge interacting in the young learner. He advanced the Threshold Hypothesis, where a minimum proficiency in a language is required for cognitive and academic functioning. Cummins (2007) maintains that L1 knowledge is a cognitive and linguistic resource for advancing to high levels of L2 proficiency. The study of Haenni Hoti, Heinzmann, Müller, Oliviera, Wicki and Werlen, (2011) confirms Cummins' views, suggesting that literacy skills in the L1, as well as listening and reading skills in the L2, contribute to more efficient L3 learning. Maintaining that what is learnt in one language is reinforced in the other languages, Cenoz (2013b) argues that previously acquired language knowledge should be used as a resource at the disposal of the multilingual learner. In schools, language knowledge includes literacies and different modes of communications in different genres and registers. Cenoz further advances incorporating the multilingual's superior metalinguistic awareness in learning. The studies of Tsang (2014) and Corcoll (2013) support the notion that multilinguals are more aware than monolinguals or bilinguals of metalinguistic differences and similarities in languages. The goals of L2 development at school are usually broader than mere oral proficiency skills, and may include a variety of literacy skills and academic language proficiency. In this regard the learners' specific language needs and goals must be considered when evaluating L2 proficiency (Schulz, 1986).

Multilingual competence is dynamic and depends on previous language experience, recency of use and the particular context of use. Hall, Cheng and Carlson (2006) describe a usage-based view of multicompetence as the language competence of users of more than one language. Supporting Cook's (2003) view of multicompetence as the co-existence of more than one language system in one mind, they maintain that it remains a dynamic and variable state throughout all the stages of L2 development. According to Ortega (2009) there is overwhelming evidence in SLA confirming a view of multiple factors simultaneously interacting and affecting language use and development. In her conceptual argument for focus on multilingualism, Cenoz (2013b) emphasizes the importance of the context of use. She argues that the knowledge of languages and cultures do not only have a cognitive effect, but also have a social effect. Discussing the phenomena of language switching and code mixing, Cenoz points out that the context determines how the L2 is incorporated into the learner's language practices. Lowie and Verspoor (2015) take a dynamic systems approach to L2 development, arguing that the L2 learner's development is the product of the dynamic interaction of processes, and depends on individual learner variables, including aptitude, motivation and anxiety, and the changing context. Lowie and Verspoor maintain that general patterns of L2 development are only possible at group level, but not for the individual. A dynamic and complexity approach to L2 development views the L2 knowledge system as restructured with the accommodation of new input, while every little change affects the language system as a whole. Larsen-Freeman (2014) states that it is in using language that stable patterns become unstable, and language develops as the system reorganizes itself. Larsen-Freeman agrees with Lowie and Verspoor's view of group averages presenting a picture of discrete stage-like linear development, when in fact L2 development of the individual is nonlinear and unique.

A usage-based approach supports the importance of context providing language exposure, resulting in language performance that reflects the input. Describing L2 development within an emergentist framework, O'Grady (2015) explicates it as a series of change in a learner's language to approximate the language that the learner is exposed to. Hulstijn (2015) states that usage-based approaches rely on input and powerful generalization mechanisms. Hall, Cheng and Carlson (2006) oppose Chomsky's notion of competence as the ideal speaker-listener in a homogenous speech community arguing that language knowledge emerges and changes through every day interaction with others. Ortega (2009) describes a number of L2 developmental processes from a usage-based perspective, including formula-based learning, simplification, overgeneralization and U-shape behaviour. She maintains that formula-based

learning permits communication in the beginning stages, as well as grammatical analysis. Ortega (2009) describes simplification as the one-meaning-one-form mapping process that generally occurs in the early stages of L2 development. Hall, Cheng and Carlson (2006) argue that meaning is derived when language structures are associated with the context of use resulting in form-function mappings. Ortega explains that overgeneralization regularly occurs when a form or rule is applied in other inappropriate contexts. In multilingual learners, cross-linguistic transfer, including the phenomenon of the L2 status factor, illustrates this developmental process in multilingual competence. Ortega (2009) describes the U-shape language developmental behaviour as typical of language restructuring, recognized in accuracy in earlier development stages, followed by regression, and resulting in more accurate and stable representations in the final phase.

Summarizing this section, an argument is made for a multilingual model in measuring L2 development based on usage-based, dynamic systems, and multicompetence perspectives, as well as regarding Cenoz's focus on multilingualism. Accordingly, previous language experience and competencies in all languages are viewed as contributing to the multilingual's language proficiency, as well as affording L2 development, while the learner's goals for L2 acquisition and the context of L2 communication are regarded as critical factors for determining learning outcomes and measuring L2 development. Larsen-Freeman (2014) describes language development as a sociocognitive process, which is complex and dynamic, with previous levels of development critically influencing the present levels. The affordances theory supports a dynamic interaction between learners' language (multi)competencies, needs and goals for L2 acquisition and the context of use directing and shaping language use, and, consequently, L2 development.

4.4.2.3 Components of L2 development

An analysis of the different components of L2 development allows the researcher and teacher to describe and measure L2 proficiency over time. Additionally, it informs language curriculum development affording cumulative learning. Arguing the significance of establishing a reliable SLA index of development, Ellis and Larsen-Freeman (2006) review a number of measures of L2 development. However, they maintain that generalizations existing at group level are not applicable at individual level. For the investigation of transcribed target task performances, examining general and specific measures of complexity in L2 development, syntactic and lexical complexity measures of language development in the literature are reviewed.

In 1996, Skehan presented a framework for implementing task-based instruction. Skehan (1996) introduced three goals of L2 acquisition: fluency, accuracy and complexity. Ellis and Shintani (2014) discuss the views of Skehan (2011) and suggests that interlanguage development takes place along these three dimensions of language production, namely fluency, accuracy and complexity. Robinson (2011a) discusses Skehan's (1998) Limited Capacity Hypothesis for attention, which motivates Skehan's framework for affording balanced language development along the three dimensions of language production. Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis (2010), on the other hand, argues for directing attention to linguistic elements and dispersing attention through non-linguistic elements, so as to increase the cognitive complexity of language tasks, thus affording L2 development. Robinson (2007) also considers the three dimensions of language production, when measuring L2 development. Robinson (2010) maintains the importance of teachers scaffolding and supporting learners' L2 development. Studying young learners, Tarone (2002) points out the functions of noticing and creativity in L2 development.

Skehan's (1996) framework for implementing task-based language teaching is based on the principle that there needs to be a developmental relationship between pedagogic and target tasks, so as to respond to the learners' real life L2 needs. Skehan explains how meaning-focused communication can negatively afford language development. Skehan (1996) refers to Levelt's (1989) speech production model asserting that on-line processing during interaction requires speech planning and execution. (See section 3.2.3 for a further discussion of Levelt's speech production model.) Skehan suggests that in order to handle communicative pressure, L2 learners rely on communication strategies, resulting in beginning L2 production and comprehension being mostly lexical in nature. Skehan maintains that if lexicalized communication is successful, and the L2 user don't receive negative input, then strategic solutions to communicative problems become proceduralized. Skehan (1996) asserts the importance of focus on form to balance the goal of fluency with accuracy and complexity, in L2 development. Skehan describes fluency as mobilizing the interlanguage system to communicate meanings in real time, accuracy as handling currently attained interlanguage complexities, and complexity as restructuring and elaborating the interlanguage system. Skehan (1996) supports his framework with Widdowson's (1989) dual modes of processing: rule-based processing and exemplar-based processing. Skehan (1996) discusses the views of Schmidt (1990, 1994) regarding the role of consciousness in learning. (See section 4.4.4 for a further discussion of consciousness and noticing.) Skehan maintains that attention is a process,

and has a control function. He asserts that L2 learners make a choice in directing attention, using limited attentional resources. Skehan suggests that the goal of L2 learning task design is to afford minimized attentional resource demand during processing through priming and salience, in order for the L2 user to direct spare attentional resources at noticing form. According to Skehan, L2 learners develop accuracy when their communicative performance conforms to the norms and rule-governed nature of language that are more consistent with the TL input data. Skehan describes development in complexity as communicating more effectively, with less circumlocutions, while expressing increasingly complex ideas. Skehan defines development in fluency as producing and comprehending speech at a rate approximating that of the L2 learner's native language. Skehan's framework suggests cycles of analysis and synthesis in a dual-processing system: firstly, analysis focuses on restructuring and developing a rule-system for precision and creative production, followed by synthesis focusing on fluency. This organizational framework has pedagogic implications. He suggests cycles of focus on form followed by focus on meaning. More recently, Skehan (2009, 2016) elaborated on these views with reference to Levelt's speech production model, explaining how task conditions, rather than the task factors, result in language development.

Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis challenges Skehan's notion of limited attentional resources, proposing multiple attentional pools, and the expansion of cognitive resources that responds to communicational needs (Skehan and Foster, 2013). According to Robinson (2011a), Skehan's (1998) Limited Capacity Hypothesis implicates that learners can either focus on accuracy, when given more time, or on complexity. In other words, tasks can lead to either increased complexity or accuracy of production. Conversely, the basic claim of the Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis is that when L2 pedagogic tasks are sequenced on the basis of increases in cognitive complexity, then L2 development is afforded resulting in more complex and more accurate language production (2011a:9). See section 3.2.4 for a discussion of the Cognition Hypothesis. Robinson (2011b) discusses traditional measures of accuracy and complexity, including the percentage of error free, or percentages of clauses per AS-unit, C-unit or T-unit. Robinson (2011b) supports the views of Norris and Ortega (2009), who argue that linguistic subordination is a relatively simple mechanism of syntactic complexification associated with earlier stages of L2 proficiency, while phrasal elaboration is achieved at advanced levels of language development. Robinson (2011b) points out that functional complexity in the performance is expressed in structural complexity of morphology, greater syntactic subordination and a higher noun to verb ratio. However, Robinson maintains that these general measures of complexity

should be supplemented by specific measures of accuracy and complexity of production, including verb-complement constructions using psychological and cognitive state terms and lexicalization patterns describing motion events that are developmentally later acquired. Robinson, Cardierno and Shirai (2009) assert that specific measures of language are motivated by the conceptual linguistic interface. They advance that a concept-orientated analyses can indicate which linguistic devices speakers use to express certain concepts. Robinson, Cardierno and Shirai (2009) and Robinson (1995, 2010) employ specific measures for lexical, semantic, morphological and clausal complexity, such as temporal references, deictic expressions (e.g. this, that, here, there), logical subordinators (because, as, if) and differentiations between many different elements (e.g. singular vs plural and adjectives).

Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis proposes that teachers stage tasks to increase in complexity, supporting learners during scaffolded performances (Robinson, 2010). These are principles that are in line with the sociocultural theory of language learning. Ellis (2012) discusses a number of studies conducted from a sociocultural approach, pointing out some important aspects of L2 development within sociocultural theory, including development resulting from collaborative learning, co-constructed knowledge, the variability of interlanguage, L2 development in terms of appropriate use of the TL, L2 development in terms of a reduced need of scaffolding, L2 development from other-regulation to self-regulation, L2 development through internalization of emergent language, and the notion of learners relying less on intermental and more on intramental language processing. (See section 3.2.2 for a discussion of sociocultural theory.) Hulstijn (2015) refers to Lantolf's (2012) description of the sociocultural theory as a general theory of human mental development, stating that it focusses more on the role of instruction than the nature of cognitive linguistic development. However, Hulstijn points out that sociocultural theory is more in line with usage-based than generative approaches to L2 development.

Within the cognitive-linguistic tradition, complexity, accuracy and fluency are investigated in quantitative research as measures of L2 development. Norris and Ortega (2009) argue that complexity, accuracy and fluency are dynamic and interconnected constructs that has to be measured multidimensionally. Norris and Ortega (2009) discuss Norris's (1996) findings suggesting that fluency may be the best measure of L2 development of oral proficiency with beginner and intermediate learners, while with intermediate to advance learners, lexical complexity was a better measure. They proposes an organic approach that considers the multidimensional, dynamic, variable and non-linear nature of L2 development. Ellis and

Larsen-Freeman (2006) discuss Wolfe-Quintero et al.'s (1998) review of 39 research studies measuring L2 development in writing, which used more than a hundred different measures of fluency, accuracy and complexity. According to Ellis and Larsen-Freeman, Wolfe-Quintero et al. identified average length of T-units, the number of error-free T-units per T-unit, as well as the number of words in error-free T-units as the best measures of fluency and accuracy, while the number of dependent clauses per clause and the word types per T-unit were the best measures for grammatical and lexical complexity, as these measures were consistent with the results of school and language programme levels. Ellis and Larsen-Freeman maintain an emergentist perspective considering L2 learning and development to be context and usage dependent. Tarone (2002) supports the view that language learning is mainly implicit, and language processing is based on frequency and probabilistic knowledge. However, Tarone maintains that conscious noticing and social context are important factors for interlanguage development. Pointing out that young children deliberately introduce variation in their frequently used language patterns for entertainment and enjoyment, Tarone concludes that language play is an expression of the speaker's creativity, and a deliberate, conscious violation of frequency and expectancy in language use. Tarone describes language play as playing with sound or meaning, or both. She further maintains that language play relies on advanced linguistic abilities and competence in different genres, registers, dialects or language varieties. Tarone (2002) posits that language play is a socially motivated, deliberate defiance of usage-based frequency rules, which makes the L2 learner's language more permeable and open to change, and as such affords L2 development.

In task-based research, complexity is investigated as a component of language performance or as an attribute of language learning, and as an element of task design. The latter is discussed in section 4.4.3 with reference to the cognitive and linguistic demands that certain task variables or language use make on the L2 learner. Complexity as a property of language development investigates structural complexity that is considered as advanced language performance. Norris and Ortega (2009) describe syntactic complexity as a dynamic function of language development. They discuss different measures of syntactic complexity in SLA, including general measures that measure the length of a speech unit, subordination and coordination, subclausal measures, and variety and sophistication. Norris and Ortega (2009) analyze Halliday and Mathiesen's (1999) theory of systemic functional linguistics applying it to an organic, dynamic approach to L2 development. Systemic functional linguistics theory proposes progression in language development from dynamic to synoptic styles. According to this

theory, learners initially express their ideas through parataxis, including coordination. Next the concepts are expanded on through hypotaxis, namely subordination. Finally, at school language users are exposed to written and academic, formal registers (Halliday, 1993). This leads to the emergence of and reliance on the grammatical metaphor, which is phrasal level complexification. Norris and Ortega describe the grammatical metaphor in terms of nominalization and can be measured through lexical density and phrasal complexity. They conclude that coordination is an appropriate measure of complexity with beginner learners, subordination, which measure the AS-unit and dependent clauses, is suitable for measuring syntactic complexity with intermediate learners and subclausal, phrasal elaboration is a good measure in advanced levels.

Bulté, Housen, Pierrard and Van Daele (2008) maintain the importance of vocabulary development for L2 proficiency. Distinguishing between declarative and procedural lexical knowledge, they state that lexical declarative knowledge is mainly measured by the size of learners' vocabulary or lexical diversity, the width and the depth of lexical knowledge. Lexical diversity is widely used to determine lexical complexity and lexical development (Ågren, Granfeldt and Schlyter, 2012, Bulté, Housen, Pierrard and Van Daele, 2008, Bulté and Housen, 2012, De Jong, Steinel, Florijn, Schoonen and Hulstijn, 2012, Durán, Malvern, Brian and Ngoni, 2004, Ishakawa, 2015, Levkina and Gilabert, 2012, Skehan and Foster, 2012, Tavakali and Foster, 2008, Tonkyn, 2012). Durán, Malvern, Brian and Ngoni (2004) describe lexical diversity as the range of vocabulary or the number of different words (i.e. types) used. A ratio representing the types per token (i.e. the total number of words used) is problematic, because the bigger the token is the less new words are used. They propose the D-estimate to compensate for the distortion that occurs in the type-token ratio with increased text lengths. Ishikawa (2015) maintains that the type-token ratio is the simplest benchmark of lexical diversity, but argues that due to its sensitivity to token quantities, it is necessary to use Malvern and Richard's D measure to adjust results appropriately. Describing procedural lexical knowledge as manifested in the communicative skill and control that a learner has, Bulté, Housen, Pierrard and Van Daele (2008) argue that it can be measured in lexical fluency and lexical productivity. Lexical productivity is determined by the number of content words or types that are used to complete a task, whereas lexical fluency is described as the speed of production and encoding, or, in other words, the degree of proceduralization. Lexical productivity is closely related to task design, while lexical fluency is a product of automatization. See section 5.5.2 for the Cognition Hypothesis's predictions regarding task design and language production. Ishikawa (2015)

refers to lexical density as the number of lexical words, including nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, in a text. He explains that this can be an indication of the amount of information condensed in a text, but it can also be a measure of language development. In this regard, Ishikawa (2015) discusses Halliday's (1985) views describing children initially using lexical words, while grammatical words emerge later with advancing linguistic abilities. (The notion of the information orientation of different texts, as reflected by lexical density is further explored in the lexical complexity analysis of tasks with different topics, in chapter 6. See section 6.9 for a summary of these findings.)

Measures of syntactic and lexical complexity indicate advance language use emerging with complex cognitive development and functioning. Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis proposes task complexity as an affordance for L2 development based on cognitive linguistic theory, advancing a conceptual-linguistic interface. Palotti (2009) maintains that complexity, accuracy and fluency are properties of language performance manifesting as products of the specific route and rate of language development. She further maintains that carefully designed tasks afford learner's engagement with complex language structures, resulting in focus on form within meaning-orientated L2 instruction. Palotti agrees with the Cognition Hypothesis, maintaining that linguistic complexity increases when this is specifically required by the communicative task and its goals. However, Palotti points out the semantic and sociopragmatic appropriateness of complexity, accuracy and fluency, in natural language use. She advances communicative adequacy as a performance descriptor, defining it as the degree of performance success in efficiently achieving the task goals. According to Palotti, simplistic functional efficiency, using less processing resources, is the most likely performance indicator, unless the task goals clearly specify conceptual demands affording complexity. These views propose that careful descriptions of task features and task demands' specifications are required, in task design and sequencing in terms of Robinson's (2010, 2011) Cognition Hypothesis, to ensure complexity measures in task performances, affording L2 development. (In chapter 6 task description specifications allow an analysis of task demands in terms of cognitive and lexical complexity measures in communicative task for young beginner isiXhosa L2 learners.)

In summary, the individual's language development is viewed within a multilingual model, which acknowledges the importance of previous language experience, current goals and social context. Frequency in the input determines accuracy, repetition in output leads to automatization and fluency, and conceptually complex, goal-orientated interaction affords complex cognitive-linguistic needs, prompting restructuring and interlanguage development.

Complexity, accuracy and fluency are regarded as multidimensional constructs of L2 development that exhibit multivariate interactions. Whether one considers the processability theory or usage-based accounts of language development, there is a general agreement that language development starts with the lemma, lexical item or formulaic expression and moves towards greater syntactical and lexical complexity through creative and varied language use.

4.4.3 Complexity

In this section complexity is analyzed from a L2 learning perspective as a positive and negative affordance for L2 development, investigating what makes certain language structures more difficult to learn than others. Different arguments in SLA literature are considered from a generative perspective, a usage-based and processing perspective, informing L2 teaching practice (Slabakova, 2013, Spiro, 2013). In TBLT, task complexity considers what makes one communicative task more difficult to complete than another. Ellis (2003) distinguishes between code complexity and cognitive complexity, while Housen and Simoens (2016) refer to structural complexity and cognitive complexity. Functional or conceptual complexity is a component of cognitive complexity that results in code complexity (Robinson, 2011a). Robinson's Triadic Componential Framework distinguishes between task complexity as an external task factor and difficulty as an internal individual learner factor. A further distinction between linguistic complexity and linguistic difficulty are proposed, where complexity is a structural function while difficulty relates to linguistic functional salience. Housen and Simoens (2016) refer to subjective, learner-related difficulty when acquiring a linguistic feature, considering individual factors, including the learner's language aptitude, language proficiency, previous language experience and language knowledge. Complexity in language learning is very significant for this study of task-based language learning for young learners, as the child's current cognitive development level implicates constraints for task-based performances (Philp, Mackey and Oliver, 2008).

The complexity of grammatical structures is explained with reference to implicit and explicit learning, informing effective L2 teaching methodology. Working within the generative framework, Slabakova (2013) argues that narrow syntactic processing is universal, however functional morphology must be explicitly learned, because it has consequences for syntax acquisition and conceptualization of meaning. White (2014) maintains that L2 learners have access to Universal Grammar, either directly or indirectly through L1 transfer, followed by parameter resetting, and lexical categories being mapped to abstract syntactic properties. On

the other hand, functional categories, including inflections marking tense, agreement, number, case and gender, and function words, such as determiners, auxiliaries and complementizers, using inflectional morphology present problems for L2 learners with a L1 that does not share the same features. These views are very significant for L2 learning of isiXhosa, which is an agglutinative and highly inflectional language. White further maintains that whereas Universal Grammar affords the successful mapping of semantics to syntax, L2 learners find the cross-linguistic differences relating to conceptualization and topic development through discourse problematic. In this respect L2 learners of a pro-drop language, like isiXhosa, whose first language is a non-pro-drop language, like Afrikaans or English, may find topic development in discourse with null subjects, very difficult. See chapter 6 for the linguistic complexity analysis of isiXhosa dialogues, and chapter 7 for suggested focus on form methodology supported by these perspectives. In section 4.4.4, explicit focus on form affording noticing is motivated, however, Spiro (2013) maintains that complex metalinguistic descriptions with exceptions for grammar rules complicate explicit language teaching attempting to oversimplify and explain the linguistic system.

Supporting the importance of implicit knowledge for language competence, Spiro (2013) refers to Ellis's (2006) views regarding specific grammatical criteria indicating difficulty for acquisition, including frequency and regularity. Low frequency forms are harder to learn implicitly due to their rare occurrence in the input. On the other hand, irregular forms don't have identifiable patterns for implicit form-meaning-function mappings, and are hard to explain or to describe in terms of explicit grammar rules. Processability is a further criterion proposed in Spiro's discussion of Ellis's (2006) views. Nasaji and Fotos (2011) analyzes input processing in accordance to Van Patten's Input Processing Model (2002). Van Patten's principles for input processing endorse the importance of functional salience. According to Van Patten's Processing Model, linguistic elements in the initial position of an utterance or sentence are most salient and processed first. Ellis (2003) describes complex sentence structure as having high levels of subordination rendering them difficult to process. L2 learning viewed from an input processing perspective regards syntactic complexity as negatively impacting on salience, implicating complexity in comprehension and, therefore, a negative language affordance. According to Spiro, Ellis also distinguishes saliency and functional value as criteria for difficult grammatical structures for implicit learning. Ellis and Collins (2009) describe salience from a usage-based approach as the perceived strength of a stimuli, relating it to selective attention, expectation and surprise. Ellis and Collins maintain that lexical forms are more salient than

morphological form. They further maintain that grammatical form-meaning relationships are low in saliency due to redundancy caused by more salient lexical cues. In this sense, the functional value or importance of a linguistic feature for interpreting the message contributes to its saliency.

Consolidating these theoretical views with the affordances theory, *linguistic difficulty* is conceptualized within the multilingual model for measuring L2 development, regarding input salience in terms of the typological distance and cross-linguistic influence between the languages of the multilingual learner, as well as metalinguistic awareness afforded by language experience, affording noticing and language acquisition of less salient morphological language features. (See sections 3.3.3 and 4.2.2.) From this perspective, linguistic difficulty is a function of the individual learner's language proficiency and background language(s) knowledge, presenting a negative language affordance for implicit knowledge based on typological or perceived typological distance. The relevance of topological differences for difficulty in L2 learning is regarded from a generative and general cognitive perspectives (Spiro, 2013, White, 2014). Supporting this view, Spiro further describes complexities arising from differences in the discourse structure of different languages for constructing meaning. Cultural differences and differences in orthographies should also be considered. According to Lee-Ellis (2014), languages can vary in terms of sound systems, word categories, morphological patterns, conceptual or semantic realizations, grammatical and referential components, as well as syntactically, contributing to difficulty in L2 learning.

According to Ellis (2003) cognitive complexity in task-based learning, concerns the tasks' informational content and the cognitive processing demands it makes. Ellis (2003) explores the viewpoints of Brown et al. (1984), Prabhu (1987) and Skehan (2001) regarding information type, and asserts that information describing changing events and abstract information or concepts are more complex than concrete information presenting structured actions or objects. Form-meaning mapping of concrete information is also supported by the context. Supporting Robinson's (1995) views of information that is context independent as having "there-and-then" references, Ellis (2003) maintains that cognitive complexity is implicated. Ellis further maintains that the availability of schemata regarding content is essential in determining complexity. He also posits that the amount of information and the medium through which it is communicated contribute to complexity. More information make greater cognitive demands. Oral and aural communication require pressured on-line processing. When the informational content and cognitive processing demands match the abilities of the language learner, then

language use and learning are afforded. However, when ability cannot meet the complexity presented in the task demands, then language learning is negatively afforded (Robinson, 2011a). *Task difficulty* is conceptualized within the Cognition Hypothesis and Robinson's (2011a) Triadic Framework as a function of low learner ability incongruent with task demands.

Young learners' more limited cognitive abilities and linguistic experience are critical factors to consider when investigating cognitive complexity, in task-based learning (Dimroth, 2008). Literacy skills, meta-linguistic knowledge, perception and memory capacity are age-related internal learner factors, presenting language affordances in the instructional setting (Dimroth, 2008, Nicholas and Lightbown, 2008, Philp, Mackey and Oliver, 2008). These and other age-related individual learner factors interact with cognitive task complexity factors, resulting in perceived task difficulty. Instead, matching resource-dispersing variables, including planning time, prior knowledge, number of task steps, dependency of steps and task structure to the young learners' cognitive abilities creates positive language affordances (Robinson, 2011a). Discussing the role of children's cognitive development, Philp, Mackey and Oliver (2008) maintain that although there are different opinions regarding the discreteness and linearity of developmental stages, certain characteristics associated with early and middle childhood, and early and later adolescence, are well documented. They assert that during middle childhood (7-11 years old), children become more logic, and become capable of categorizing, organizing objects and problem-solving, seeing different perspectives, develop topic maintenance and simple discourse pragmatics, acquire oral and written literacies, metalinguistic abilities and more complex grammar and vocabulary, as well as develop turn-taking social skills and, consequently, able to work in bigger groups. However, Philp, Mackey and Oliver assert that young learners are not capable of abstract thought. These developing cognitive abilities of young learners must be considered in task design, so as to match task complexity in terms of Robinson's (2011a) resource-directing variables, including temporal aspects, causal and spatial reasoning. Task implementation and sequencing with increasing cognitive complexity demands are discussed in chapter 5, and in section 5.5.3, these issues are explored further for task-based syllabus design for young learners.

Summarizing this section, complexity is described as a positive and negative affordance for language learning. Different theories describe structural and functional complexity of language, relating to L2 learning and teaching. Task complexity has to challenge, while still falling within the range of a learner's cognitive and linguistic ability, in order to afford language use and language development. In task-based language learning, complexity leading to a

breakdown in communication presents opportunities for focus on form within a meaningful communicative context, including corrective feedback and more explicit metalinguistic explanations, affording noticing and language development. Linguistic difficulty is proposed as the relationship between the multilingual learner's language competence and the specific linguistic properties of the TL input, presenting a negative language affordance, motivating explicit focus on form creating opportunities for noticing. (In chapter 7 focus on form is described affording noticing in task-based L2 learning.)

4.4.4 Noticing

In this study, noticing is regarded as essential for perceiving and effectuating language affordances in the TL input, permitting language learning and L2 development. Linguistic complexity or structural complexity and linguistic difficulty are considered negative language affordances, motivating focus on form pedagogic practices affording noticing. In this section, the construct of noticing is explored from different cognitive and interactional perspectives in the literature, providing insight into the complex and dynamic nature of L2 development.

Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis has generated much speculation about the nature of the processing mechanisms involved in L2 learning and development. Philp (2014) maintains that Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis contributes greatly to understanding language processing and the important role of noticing in language acquisition, however he points out the controversial perspectives on the role of consciousness in noticing. Philp further maintains that the claim that only noticed input is available for learning motivates form-focused instruction research and related research in task-based language learning. In the literature, the role of noticing in L2 learning and development is explored in different pedagogic applications, including comprehensible input ($i + 1$) and corrective feedback.

The noticing hypothesis is specific about the role of consciousness in L2 learning, asserting a degree of consciousness. Discussing Schmidt's (1990) noticing hypothesis, Leow (2014) maintains that a minimal requirement of a low level of awareness of linguistic features is necessary for intake, while understanding affords deeper learning. According to Ellis (2003), Schmidt (2001) asserts that the allocation of attention is essential for language development measured in the emergence of new language representations, fluency and variation. Truscott and Sharwood Smith (2011) maintain that the noticing hypothesis concerns awareness of the presence of a linguistic feature in the input, but does not involve understanding and, therefore, excludes rules and generalizations. Truscott and Sharwood Smith further maintain that it is

very difficult to distinguish between noticing and understanding. Ellis and Shintani (2014) discuss Schmidt's (2001) views, pointing out that learners notice and consciously register formal features in the input, but that these are exemplars not rules. When learners are aware of generalization, this constitute understanding (Williams, 2005). In discussing Schmidt's (1990) views of consciousness, Godfroid, Housen and Boers (2010) present a continuum of attention with different degrees of consciousness: perception -> noticing -> understanding. They maintain that noticing is the focus of attention, and it is this kind of consciousness that is required for learning. Ellis and Shintani (2014) point out that the Noticing Hypothesis claims that noticing is necessary for learning, but does not guarantee acquisition.

Focal attention requires working memory that has limited storage and processing capacity (Ortega, 2009). Ellis and Shintani (2014) maintain that noticing involves working memory. They describe the process of intake as the part of the input or the linguistic forms that enters the working memory. They state that a form, which has been activated in working memory and rehearsed, may enter the long-term memory. This results in a change in the learner's long-term memory, constituting acquisition. Godfried, Housen and Boers (2010) discuss Robinson's (2003) views of noticing, which propose an additional link between input and the long-term memory. Robinson distinguishes between focal attention, which is needed for intake into the working memory and is the result of noticing, and peripheral attention, which allows input to enter the short-term memory and is the result of detection. According to Godfried, Housen and Boers, Robinson posits that stimuli from both the working memory and the short-term memory may enter the long-term memory, but the status and representations in the long-term memory are qualitatively different. This view is in line with usage-based accounts of second language acquisition, which suggest that competence relies on implicit learning. (See section 3.4.2.) Philp (2014) points out that such alternative views dispute the claim that intake is dependent on noticing, but acknowledges the central role of noticing where low salience, redundant forms and prior knowledge bias create negative affordances for L2 development.

According to Ellis (2003), Schmidt (2001) relates attention to the processes of noticing and noticing-the-gap. Ellis describes noticing as the subjective registering of formal features in the input, while noticing-the-gap is when the learner identifies the difference between the input and the output, which he or she is able to produce. Ortega (2009) points out that noticing can be externally or internally afforded. She maintains that learners notice the gap while trying to comprehend input above their current level of interlanguage development, or they notice the hole in their linguistic resources when they try but are unable to express cognitively or

functionally complex utterances, necessitating language development. The former relates to comprehensible input and related claims as expressed in Krashen's Input Hypothesis ($i + 1$), while the latter invokes Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Ortega further maintains that noticing may also be afforded through explicit or implicit focus on form. Alcón-Soler (2009) investigated the relationship between interaction, explicit and implicit focus on form and noticing. In that study, she operationalized noticing as uptake resulting in immediate lexical gains. Although both explicit and implicit feedback resulted in lexical gains, explicit feedback was more effective in affording uptake. Alcón-Soler further proposes that the task complexity, resulting in negotiation or interaction during the oral tasks, afforded more uptake or noticing. Ellis and Shintani (2014) point out that there is no clear evidence of the length of such positive effects or the retention of explicit instruction, in SLA. On the other hand, they argue that instruction that is directed at developing implicit knowledge needs to be more extensive than instruction for explicit knowledge.

In summary, it is generally agreed that noticing affords L2 development where focused attention allows learners to overcome some of the limitations associated with implicit learning, including the extensive time and input needed, as well as poor competence as measured in complexity and accuracy. Philp (2014) points out the difficulty in measuring internal cognitive constructs, like noticing and awareness. An affordances theory in L2 development circumvent speculations about internal cognitive processes by merely investigating learner actions as evidence of what was noticed and processed. (See section 2.2.5, figure 2.1.) The value of the noticing hypothesis lies in its support for task-based language teaching, form-focused instruction and the Cognition Hypothesis. These issues are explored further in chapter 5, and applied to the context of young beginner isiXhosa L2 learners in chapter 7.

4.5 SUMMARY

This chapter examined the affordances theory in L2 development, recognized as a continuous dynamic process determined by the individual's communicative needs perceiving language affordances in the context, and by engagement with language, relying on internal and external learner factors. In the instructed L2 learning setting, language development was explored as both the aim and measure of success or failure of L2 learning and teaching processes. Effective curriculum design includes principles and aims for language development supported by SLA theory and research, a graded syllabus, learning resources, methodology that scaffold and afford language development and valid measures of assessment.

Considering different perspectives on L2 development provided insight into the cognitive and social L2 learning mechanisms and processes, as well as the complex properties of language impacting on L2 learning. A cognitive-processing perspective regards the relationship between language input presenting form and frequency and internal learner factors affording noticing and permitting language development that can be quantitatively measured in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency. Socio-cultural approaches recognize the role of the context and interaction in conceptualizing meaning and function, examining the roles of interactants, the co-construction of meaning and learning resources affording access to input that promotes language development.

According to Larsen-Freeman, language development is driven by internal resources, such as memory, attention and motivation, as well as external resources, such as interaction and participation (2014:104). In this chapter a number of internal and external learner factors were analyzed from different perspectives in the literature. Age of onset, implicit and explicit learning, language aptitude and motivation were considered to interact, forming part of a complex and dynamic system of individual language affordances. Target language input and intake are essential for L2 processing, while interaction affords noticing and pushes output. Input and interaction were described as external affordances determined by the context of learning.

The instructional L2 learning setting were examined, describing input and interaction as functions of teacher talk, methodology and materials development that regard the learners' needs, teaching and learning goals, and the learning context. Meaningful learning relating L2 knowledge to learners' existing knowledge structures, relying on L1 use, cross-metalinguistic awareness, input familiarity and elaboration, learning strategies and communication strategies includes explicit and implicit learning processes. With regard to young learners, a review of the literature confirmed the importance of implicit language learning and intrinsic, situational motivation for deeper language processing. Research were presented indicating that enjoyment of learning activities affords intrinsic motivation. Studies were discussed pointing at the importance of experiential learning and self-accomplishment, motivating age-appropriate task-based teaching methods. L2 teaching that continuously evaluates L2 performance, reflecting on the uptake of affordances, so as to create a domain most conducive to L2 development, was motivated with affordances theory. The role of the teacher, methodology and teaching materials were described as important affordances for L2 development in the instructed setting. This chapter invoked the view that methodology should be principled and

appropriate for the particular learner needs and the learning context. In chapter 5, task-based second language teaching is motivated as representing established SLA theories and pedagogic principles, informing task design, task sequencing and methodology.

Noticing and complexity were explored as essential factors for L2 development. Fluency, accuracy and complexity were examined as performance goals and measures of L2 development. In task-based language teaching, cognitive complexity affords linguistic complexity in language production, while linguistic complexity affords negotiation of meaning for language comprehension and language development. A discussion of research findings indicated that the context, age and proficiency levels of L2 learners determine syntactic and lexical measures of linguistic complexity. In chapter 6, target communicative tasks are analyzed according to these dimensions of complexity.

Cognitive perspectives on L2 development described the vital role that input frequency and saliency play in L2 processing and noticing. The multilingual learner's developing language knowledge is regarded as a dynamic component of language aptitude, constituting a relevant processing resource factor, differentiating interlearner perceived language difficulty and task difficulty. Linguistic complexity described as an attribute of language learning motivates focus on form, affording noticing and language development in the instructed L2 learning setting. Task complexity explored as an adjustable element of communicative task design was conceptualized as a positive affordance for L2 development in the instructional L2 learning setting, when language input is context sensitive and adapted to internal learner factors, including ability, affording comprehensible input and interaction.

CHAPTER FIVE

A TASK-BASED APPROACH TO SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

5.1 INTRODUCTION

A task-based approach to second language (L2) teaching is based on a particular understanding of the construct of task, which relates to the goal and function of a task in a certain context. In this chapter, the use of tasks for L2 development of general communicative proficiency, in young beginner learners, in the instructional context is motivated, identifying language affordances in task design and implementation features, learning contents and syllabus design. This chapter aims at grounding and supporting a principle of complexity within these three components of task-based language teaching.

Ellis (2009) asserts that task-based language teaching is an approach and not a method. He points out that there is not just one single task-based teaching approach. Ellis's comparison of three different task-based approaches in second language acquisition (SLA) literature explicates this view (2009:225). Ellis and Shintani (2014) support Pica's (1998) views regarding tasks, stating that the notion of task entails both a theoretical and a pedagogical construct. Ellis (2003) explains that both researchers and teachers use tasks to elicit language use from L2 learners. Teachers are familiar with the concept of tasks, and many teachers use the terms "task", "activity" and "exercise" synonymously. Distinctively, a task-based approach to second language teaching considers language as a tool for language learning and not an object of study (Samuda and Bygate, 2008).

In section 5.2, the construct of task is analyzed. Kumaravadivelu (2006) refers to the flexibility of the concept. The range of available definitions for the concept of task attests to this (Ellis, 2003, 2012, Ellis and Shintani, 2014, Nunan, 2004, Samuda and Bygate, 2008, Willis and Willis, 2007). An appropriate definition of tasks depends on the context and objective for the use of tasks in second language teaching. In this study, the task-based approach applies tasks in second language teaching to control and increase the complexity of the target language (TL) performance, for the purpose of affording L2 development through authentic language use within the instructional context. Pertinent properties of the construct of task for this purpose are supported by second language acquisition (SLA) research on task design, in section 5.3.

A discussion of different task types, in section 5.2, further explicates the construct of task. Proponents of task-based language teaching describe different task types or task typologies

based on implicated teaching methods, type or mode of task input, required activities, strategies or outcomes (Ellis, 2003, 2012, Ellis and Shintani, Crookes and Gass, 1993, Kumaravadivelu, 2006, Nunan, 2003, Willis and Willis, 2007). However, Robinson (2010) argues that a task description cannot be too simple in referring to the properties in which tasks may vary, as this would lead to a lengthy, inexhaustible list. Instead, Robinson (2010) suggests that a taxonomy of task characteristics and categories of tasks should be based on language learning processes identified in SLA theory, as well as on target task analyses, to ensure operational consistency with different materials and across different L2 teaching contexts. Robinson further maintains that a common reference system of particular task types and task characteristics is necessary in task research, ensuring comparability in the SLA field.

Research on task design in SLA literature is reviewed in section 5.3. Kumaravadivelu (2006) posits that the extent of task-based research, conducted over the past three decades, contributes to a deeper psycholinguistic understanding of L2 learning (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Skehan, Xiaoyue, Qian and Wang (2012) state that the use of tasks within SLA research is associated with a greater sense of empirical accountability towards pedagogy. Robinson (2011b) distinguishes between psycholinguistic and socio-cultural perspectives in task-based research. The former investigates how task type and task design afford intake, while the latter regards learner and teacher perspectives. (See section 3.2 for a further discussion of the differences between social and cognitive perspectives in SLA research.) This study specifically explores research into task design, implementation variables and task complexity to support L2 development through task-based syllabus design.

In section 5.4, pedagogic principles and SLA theories are consolidated supporting a task-based approach in L2 teaching. Samuda and Bygate (2008) maintain that task-based language teaching (TBLT) evolved from, and represents the conceptual foundations of communicative language teaching, but organizes teaching and learning activities through meaningful and deliberate communicative tasks. Spiro's (2013) distinction between methodology and method is invoked to describe firstly, the theories and principles underlying TBLT, and secondly, in discussing specific teaching and learning activities and procedures that can be applied within a task-based approach. In TBLT, tasks also present a mode of assessment that is performance-based. Samuda and Bygate distinguish TBLT from task-referenced teaching and task-supported teaching by maintaining tasks as the defining unit of analysis in lesson and syllabus design.

Task-based syllabus design describes, grades and sequences learning contents in terms of communicative tasks. The rationale for a task-based syllabus in which tasks are graded and sequenced from simple to complex is explained by Robinson (2007), who argues that input is related to output, and affords uptake during more complex tasks. According to Robinson (2001), L2 development is the result of the restructuring of existing L2 representations, and the use of new L2 knowledge to meet the demands of more complex tasks. This study explores the relevance and application of Robinson's (2010) Cognition Hypothesis as a theoretical rationale for syllabus design for young beginner learners in primary school. An investigation of studies informing the application of the Cognition Hypothesis in TBLT, as well as studies investigating its claims regarding complexity and L2 performance, are reviewed in section 5.5 (Robinson, 2011b). In section 5.5.3, second language acquisition (SLA), cognitive psychology and pedagogic theories are integrated in the application of the Cognition Hypothesis to syllabus design for young beginner learners, advancing the affordances theory for identifying task types and task complexity variables, regarding the learners' needs, abilities and interests.

Communicative tasks, affording dynamic, non-linear language learning processes, and complexity considered as a function of task design for young beginner learners, affording L2 development, are analyzed and theoretically motivated, defining a task-based approach to isiXhosa L2 teaching in primary school intermediate phase.

5.2 THE CONSTRUCT OF TASK

The construct of task is central to task-based language teaching, but not unique to this field. According to Samuda and Bygate (2008), Johnson (1979) first introduced the concept of task in language learning and teaching to explicate the language processing dimension of language learning. Kumaravadivelu (2006) maintains that the use of the term "task" has become increasingly widespread in second language teaching and learning, since the mid 1980's. Samuda and Bygate (2008) maintain that tasks are widely used as part of the content of language teaching programmes, but that considerable confusion exists in the teaching profession about the exact properties of task. They argue that task as a distinct pedagogic construct is defined by the mode of delivery. According to Kumaravadivelu, there is little consensus among researchers on a definition for task in SLA, which points towards different approaches in task-based language teaching (TBLT). Ellis and Shintani (2014) state that TBLT is based on the principle that tasks afford second language acquisition by requiring learners to pay attention to

form and meaning, but there are different theories on how this is best achieved. Different task-types reflect these different views on the relationship between form and meaning in tasks.

Language learning tasks represent a synthetic approach to L2 teaching. Samuda and Bygate (2008) emphasize the holistic quality of language learning tasks. They maintain that in essence holistic tasks embody general pedagogic principles, including the importance of personal and functional relevance of the input, as well as the catalyst function of active participation and experience in learning. They further maintain that tasks represent language as a complex, holistic system, in a similar way to which language is encountered and has to be processed in natural communication. However, Van den Branden (2006) states that natural communicative behaviour is a complex skill, which demands simultaneous use of linguistic and general cognitive resources. Robinson (2010) points out that the learning of any complex skill or subject is facilitated by teachers scaffolding learners' performances and grading pedagogic tasks in accordance with learners' cognitive processing abilities. Samuda and Bygate trace the use of holistic activities back to the introduction of communicative language learning, in L2 language classrooms. Kumaravadivelu (2006) maintains that communicative language teaching focuses on the creative, unpredictable and purposeful nature of language use in holistic tasks. Samuda and Bygate contrast holistic tasks with analytic tasks, which aim to simplify language learning by presenting isolated target features of language to reduce the number of aspects that the learners have to attend to. They argue that exclusively analytical activities are meaningless, and instead advance the value of pedagogic tasks presenting simplified input while maintaining a synthetic approach to L2 teaching.

A further defining quality of language learning tasks is communicative authenticity. Emphasizing the importance of authenticity in tasks, Ellis (2003) distinguishes between interactional authenticity and situational authenticity. With reference to Bachman's (1990) views regarding authenticity, Ellis (2009) argues that interactional authenticity in TBLT affords natural interactional processes, such as negotiation of meaning, scaffolding, inferencing and monitoring. (See section 4.3.2 for a discussion of the language affordances created through interaction.) Interactional authenticity is achieved when tasks afford language behaviour that corresponds with real-world activities, while situational authenticity corresponds more directly to real-world situations, using authentic materials. Although authentic materials provide interesting and motivating input for language learning, Ellis and Shintani (2014) maintain that they are also likely to present cultural and linguistic difficulties.

Interactional authenticity in task-based teaching affords language development necessary for coping with target tasks representing situational authenticity. Samuda and Bygate (2008) state that a task has to present a challenge, which they define as a function of the relationship between the task demands and the current knowledge state of the learner. Arguing the importance of noticing and comprehensible input, especially for beginner learners, Ellis and Shintani suggest that design variables and simplification can assist learners through a series of tasks approximating the authentic version. Robinson (2010) maintains the utility value of pedagogic task versions with simplified task demands, developing abilities needed for performing real-world tasks. Robinson (2011b) suggests that task analysis may identify a number of sub-tasks which learners must be able to perform in order to develop abilities needed for complex, real-world tasks. However, the simplified pedagogic tasks, scaffolding learner's acquisition of communicative abilities, remain communicatively authentic, relying on TL use for constructing meaning.

The difference between tasks and exercises is the aim and focus of the activity. The relationship between focus on form and focus on meaning can be illustrated on a continuum of attention shifting between these opposing poles. Ellis (2003) asserts that a task is different from language exercises in that the primary focus of tasks is on meaning. He proposes that tasks afford authentic language use. Ellis (2009) further explains that learners have to use their own linguistic (and non-linguistic) resources to complete a task, instead of merely manipulating the input that they are provided with. According to Ellis and Shintani (2014), exercises are activities that aim at practicing particular language items. They state that tasks afford a communicative context for using language in an effort to achieve a clearly defined outcome. Van den Branden (2006) also emphasizes the goal-orientation dimension of tasks. For Ellis (2003) the key characteristic of a task is the pragmatic use of language to achieve a non-linguistic outcome. Van den Branden states that the language learner uses language as a means to an end. However, Skehan, Xiaoyue, Qian and Wang (2012) assert that activity and completion of the task is not enough, as L2 learners may acquire communication strategies at the cost of L2 development.

Communicative tasks afford language development while task participants focus on communicating cognitively challenging meanings. Skehan, Xiaoyue, Qian and Wang (2012) argue that control over interlanguage development is afforded by the process of form-meaning mapping. Ellis and Shintani (2014) argue that within the context of the task, the learners have to attend to both semantic and pragmatic meaning in order to communicate their intentions and

encode their interlocutor's utterances. Van den Branden (2006) supports this view and states that meaningful language use affords cognitive form-meaning mappings, and, therefore, implies unconscious or conscious attention to form. Maintaining the importance of form-meaning-use mappings, Keck and Kim (2014) explain that the task context allows for contextualized form-meaning mappings. Ellis and Shintani (2014) state that although tasks require learners to act primarily as language users, the ultimate aim of language learning is L2 development. In order to improve their language proficiency, learners need to attend to linguistic features. In other words, while mainly aiming at achieving the task outcome, they also have to focus on form. (See section 5.4.2 for a more detailed discussion of focus on form.)

A deliberate focus on form in task-based teaching is a function of task design. Ellis (2003) draws a distinction between focused tasks and unfocused tasks. This distinction reflects the perspective and intentions of the task designer, which Ellis refers to as the task-as-workplan specifying the task components and task input. Ellis maintains that during unfocussed tasks, the learners use their own linguistic resources to achieve a non-linguistic outcome, while there are no task design specifications necessitating the use of any linguistic feature(s) for the task performance, or the task-as-process. Samuda and Bygate (2008) discuss Loschky and Bley-Vroman's (1993) views of the different degrees of form-focus that tasks afford. They rank the degree of focus on a specified form as natural, useful or essential in the execution of a task. Ellis (2003) argues for two kinds of focused tasks, namely, task design presenting a degree of usefulness of a predetermined linguistic form for task completion, and tasks that have metalinguistic awareness as the content and objective of the task. Ellis refers to the latter as conscious-raising tasks. (Focus on form and focused tasks are discussed further in section 5.4.2, and in section 7.2.2, task design of focused tasks for young beginner isiXhosa L2 learners is explored.) Ellis (2003) distinguishes between comprehension tasks and production tasks, maintaining that task-essentialness of a predetermined linguistic feature is easier to control through comprehension tasks, which are input-based. Ellis (2012) further maintains that focused production tasks can at best achieve task-naturalness for utility of a target language feature.

In discussing various pedagogic classifications of tasks, Ellis and Shintani (2014) posit that task-based L2 instruction involves skill development, including higher cognitive functioning. Ellis (2009) describes specific task types with regard to the skills they elicit from learners, including input-providing tasks involving listening and reading, output-prompting tasks resulting in speaking or writing, and integrative tasks teaching two or more skills. Willis and

Willis (2007) consider the kind of operations or activities that tasks require learners to perform, such as listing, ordering or sorting, comparing, problem-solving, sharing of experiences, and creative or project task types. Ellis and Shintani discuss Prabhu's (1987) three classic task types, namely information-gap, opinion-gap and reasoning-gap tasks, maintaining that task design and the task outcome determine the kind of information and the way in which it is exchanged between interactants. Del Pilar Garcia Mayo and Alcón Soler (2013) refer to all tasks where information exchange is required, as information-gap tasks. Ellis and Shintani further describe information-gap tasks as either one-way, when one speaker has all the information to be shared while the other participant(s) only listens and acts, or two-way, when the information needed to perform the task is divided amongst all the participants who act as listeners and speakers. They also describe jigsaw tasks as two-way information-gap tasks with three or more participants who need to share the information. Additionally, Keck and Kim (2014) explain that jigsaw tasks have a single, convergent outcome. According to Ellis and Shintani opinion-gap tasks require the exchange of opinions and different viewpoints, whereas reasoning-gap tasks require synthesizing the given information, inferencing and deduction of new facts. Kumaravadivelu (2007) considers transactional tasks, which include problem-solving, decision-making or opinion-expressing communicative tasks, maintaining that transactional language is message-orientated, and focus on the exchange of information and content. Nunan (2004) considers the activity along with the type of strategy that learners engage in during the task activity, for instance, predicting requires cognitive strategies, role play requires interpersonal strategies, selective listening is an example of a linguistic strategy, personalizing is an affective strategy, and brainstorming is a creative strategy.

A taxonomy describing task variables classifies tasks in terms of identified task features. According to Robinson (2011b), a taxonomy for task classification must be motivated by SLA theory of L2 processing and development, must be detailed enough to relate to a wide variety of real-world task demands, making it feasible for application in different language learning programmes by different task designers, and importantly, it must provide a metric for the systematic classification and sequencing of pedagogic tasks. Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993) suggest a task typology based on the analysis of communicative task features, including activity and goal. They distinguish interactant relationship and interaction requirements, such as one-way or two-way communication activity, describing the specific interactional activity task features, as well as convergent or divergent goal orientation and open or closed outcome options, representing the specific communication goal task features. Robinson's (2007) Triadic

Componential Framework for classifying tasks also takes into account the task outcome (open or closed and convergent or divergent solutions) and the specific activities (planning time, number of steps, and independency or dependency of steps). Although, most notably, Robinson's framework (2010, 2011a) invokes cognitive language processing factors by presenting temporal, differentiation, reasoning and perspective-taking cognitive demands through task design, affording task-natural usefulness of specific linguistic forms for task performance.

Summarizing this section, tasks are presented as holistic communicative activities that afford key language learning processes, including authentic target language input, goal-orientated pushed output, authentic interaction involving co-constructed semantic and pragmatic meaning, and negotiation of meaning affording focus on form and comprehensible input. In discussing Ericsson and Hastie's (1994) views regarding learning through real-world communicative activities, Samuda and Bygate (2008) point out that task-based learning opportunities are sporadic and inconsistent, when the focus and negotiations are directed at the non-linguistic purpose of the activity. Samuda and Bygate maintain that a second language pedagogy of tasks must describe systematic relations between tasks and language learning, including issues of design, learning focus and interaction type, as well as implementation variables, such as planning time, feedback and teacher support. They conclude that tasks cannot simply be provided to learners with the expectation that it will naturally result in language learning, but task design and implementation variables must be carefully considered and informed by linguistic, cognitive, educational and social psychological research to afford language processing that results in language learning.

5.3 RESEARCH ON TASK DESIGN

This study focuses on task design affording complexity, recognizing the importance of individual factors and context-specific variables interacting and shaping complex learning processes. Ellis (2012) explores the relationship between task-as-plan and task-as-process, pointing out that research investigating tasks describes a correlation between task design and performance. Robinson (2001) states that task structure and design impose different information processing demands on learners during real time task performance. According to Gilabert, Barón and Levkina (2011), recent studies into task complexity indicate that the inherent degree of cognitive complexity that tasks present affects task performance. They maintain that researchers are able to predict learners' interaction and language production

behaviour by manipulating attentional, memory and reasoning demands of tasks. Research studies on task design regularly investigate the relationship between pedagogic task design and the fluency, accuracy and complexity of interlanguage production, making explicit specific aspects of task design and task implementation that afford language acquisition and interlanguage development. Considering these measures of L2 production, Robinson (2001) argues that the task's complexity and implementation conditions, as well as the task difficulty, which is determined by individual learner factors, interact to influence task performance and L2 acquisition.

SLA research findings indicate that the relationship between task design variables and task performance depends on task complexity, individual internal learner factors and interactive task implementation variables. In discussing Breen's (1989) views regarding task-as-plan and task-as-process, Ellis (2009) argues that the nature of task-based interaction depends on three factors, namely learner proficiency level, task design features and method of implementation. Bitchener (2010) maintains that interactive tasks afford learner initiated negotiation of meaning and noticing the gap in their interlanguage linguistic resources. Bitchener compares the incidental vocabulary acquisition of low intermediate learners during an information-gap task and a decision-making task. He maintains that the decision-making task led to more abstract nouns relating to the more complex conceptualizations, and concludes that the content demands of the tasks determine the focus of learning. Bitchener further maintains that task-based negotiation of meaning affords the incremental acquisition of vocabulary. Advancing interactive participation as a language affordance is supported by Philp and Iwashita's (2013) study comparing noticing of forms by observers and interactants, during task performance. They conclude that language production, rather than only observing, during task-based peer interaction pushes form-meaning connections, and draws on explicit language knowledge.

Different task types make different interactional and cognitive complexity demands. In a study of learner-learner interaction, comparing simple and complex versions of information-gap and reasoning gap tasks, Kim (2009) investigated noticing the gap with a low and high proficiency group. Kim operationalized noticing as language related episodes and negative feedback. She found less noticing for the low proficiency group, and more noticing for the high proficiency group, during the complex versions of the reasoning gap tasks. Kim concludes that task type and learner readiness afford noticing. Gurzynski-Weiss and Révész (2012) investigated naturally occurring teacher-learner interaction in the language classroom. They specifically examined the amount and type of teacher feedback, and the opportunities and incidence of

learner modified output, during the different task phases. Gurzynski-Weiss and Révész conclude that the type of task and task phase determine the focus of interaction. In this study, most teacher feedback occurred during the post-task phase, when learners reported back, and discussed the task. Also, when feedback occurred during focused tasks, it was explicit regarding the target linguistic forms. Whereas, during unfocused tasks, the teacher feedback was mainly implicit and addressing general learner errors.

Different task types furnishing particular conceptual demands and the task input afford the use of specific language forms, directing attentional resources towards relevant performance dimensions determined by the task goals. Gilabert, Barón and Levkina (2011) analyzed language production in terms of fluency, accuracy and complexity, during the performance of a simple and more complex narrative tasks, instruction- and direction-giving map tasks, and decision-making tasks. Their findings demonstrated that the map task produced the highest fluency and least lexical and syntactic complexity, the narrative task produced more accurate language and the most structural and lexical complexity, and the decision-making task led learners to direct their attention to conceptualization, which resulted in less fluent and less accurate language production. They conclude that the nature of language development is task goal-related. Trofimovich, McDonough and Neumann (2013) argue that peer interaction provides input and affords uptake, during task-based learning. They investigated information exchange tasks, where statements and prompts are used for auditory and syntactic priming. They maintain that learner readiness affords uptake, as the priming was more effective with previously encountered forms than with unfamiliar or new language structures. They conclude that exposure to models of language, including repetition at phonological, lexical and structural levels, affords L2 production of target language patterns.

Implementation variables, such as task repetition, planning time and participatory structure, affect task performance and L2 development in significant ways. Pinter (2007) maintains that repetition is a critical task condition for affording an attention shift in learners from meaning to form. Pinter examined peer interaction with very low competence ten-year-old L2 learners, during an interactive task (Spot-the-difference task). Repeated use of different versions of the same task led to more effective grammar, more appropriate vocabulary, and more cohesive discourse, in this study. Pinter maintains the importance of unrestricted language use to create own meanings. Pinter further maintains that the task type allows for independence of steps, and that keeping the number of differences constant also affords opportunity for improvement and success, adding to the young learners' enjoyment and motivation. Ahmadian and Tavakoli

(2010) investigated the implementation of task repetition and online planning, during an oral production, narrative task. They compared learners' L2 production when tasks were performed under time pressure to production when the interactants were allowed enough time for speech formulation and task completion. In this study, online planning afforded more accurate and more complex language than pressured online planning. Task repetition together with online planning resulted in more accurate, more fluent and exponentially more complex language production. Révész and Han (2006) also found that task familiarity, as afforded by task repetition, led to greater accuracy in their study of L2 oral production during the performance of a narrative task. They investigated the efficacy of recasts during task-based learning, and observed that visual input resulted in more uptake than written input. They conclude that the notes-primed task was more resource-depleting than the images-primed task, which afforded more attention to form and more accurate language production.

Varying classroom participatory structures for task repetition and task planning benefits learner language development. In their study, Geng and Ferguson (2013) found that planning time afforded significantly better L2 performance, during task-based learning. They propose the efficiency of pre-task planning (i.e. strategic planning) with different participatory conditions, including individual, pair-work and teacher-led conditions, affording development according to all three dimensions of L2 development. Results from this study indicated that pair work strategic planning lead to significantly greater fluency, while individual strategic planning had some effects for complexity, and that teacher-led pre-task planning had some advantages for accuracy. Geng and Ferguson investigated these variables during a decision-making task and an information exchange task, considering the decision-making task to be cognitively more complex than the information exchange task. They found that the decision-making task afforded more complexity during L2 performance. This finding is in line with the predictions of the Cognition Hypothesis. (See section 3.2.4.) Geng and Ferguson point out the benefits or varying the classroom participatory structure in pre-task planning.

Different modes of performance with different task types benefit particular task performance goals. Gilabert, Barón and Levkina (2011) state that L2 learners' performances are strongly influenced by modes of performance. They found that learners' proficiency was reflected in their output as measured by fluency, structural and lexical complexity and accuracy during monologue mode, however, during dialogue mode, their L2 performances were greatly influenced by their interlocutors output. Michel, Kuiken and Vedder (2007) also compared L2 performance during a monologue task (advice-giving) and a dialogue task (discussion task). In

this study, Michel, Kuiken and Vedder found that the dialogue task's L2 output was less complex, but had significantly more confirmation checks. They maintain that interactivity affords attention to form, and more accuracy. However, when they analyzed the L2 performance during more complex versions of these tasks, they only found the monologue task to result in more accuracy.

A number of research studies investigated learners' interpretations of tasks and their perceptions of task difficulty. Philp, Walter and Basturkmen (2010) maintain that individual learner factors, including personality, aptitude, previous language knowledge and experience, perceptivity and interactant relationships, interact with task conditions to affect the nature of task interactions and performance. In their study, they investigated language related episodes in peer interactions, during unfocused tasks. They conclude that incidences of focus on form were infrequent, and determined by personal and interpersonal factors. Therefore, they propose that language focus can be better regulated through task design and task essentialness. Révész and Brunfaut (2013) maintain that task design determines what learners notice and attend to. Révész and Brunfaut investigated the effects of different task input factors on learners' listening comprehension, and on their perception of task difficulty. They conclude that only the factors that were relevant for task completion, namely lexical complexity and causal reasoning, significantly affected listening comprehension and listening difficulty. Ishikawa (2011) used task design to manipulate task complexity by increasing the intentional reasoning demands. He concludes that learner perception of task difficulty became increasingly significant with more complex tasks, as this impacted on the quality of language production. Ishikawa observed a strong correlation between task complexity and learners' perception of task difficulty. Ishikawa's analysis of L2 language production indicates that learners who perceive a task as difficult speak less fluently. In the simple task versions, task difficulty afforded lexically more complex language production, but in complex tasks, learners' perceptions of task difficulty correlated negatively with speech rate and lexical complexity measures. Robinson's findings (2007) confirm these effects of task difficulty, illustrating output anxiety correlating negatively with complexity of speech.

Summarizing this section, research studies identified a multiplicity of factors that influences task-as-process. The relationship between task design, task performance and interlanguage development is complex. Interaction, online planning and repetition afford L2 learning. Task design specifies the conditions for task-based interaction. Gilabert (2007) asserts that different task types draw learners' attention to form at different levels. Additionally, Robinson (2001)

maintains that task design makes specific cognitive demands determining task complexity, resulting in intra-learner differences in L2 performances. Robinson (2001) further maintains that pedagogic task performance is affected by several task complexity dimensions simultaneously. Research indicates that monologic tasks with strategic planning time and cognitive complexity afford L2 development in terms of fluency, complexity and accuracy. However, individual learner factors determine learners' perception of task difficulty, which correlates positively with task complexity and negatively with L2 performance. According to Révész and Han (2006), research into task-based language learning is increasingly valued due to its cognitive nature and its relevance for language teaching practices.

5.4 TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) has its roots in communicative language teaching, sharing a learner-centered, meaning-focused approach to L2 teaching and learning. (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, Samuda and Bygate, 2008). According to Ellis and Shintani (2014), TBLT constitutes a strong form of communicative language teaching (CLT). Samuda and Bygate (2008) argue that TBLT represents a return to the conceptual foundations of CLT. Spiro refers to these conceptual foundations, or underlying principles and theories of teaching as *methodology* (2013:3). Describing methodology, Nunan states that a set of beliefs about the nature of language and learning leads to a set of procedures for classroom action (2004:215). Significantly, the construct of *task* differentiates these two teaching approaches, organizing L2 learning and teaching contents and activities. Spiro (2013) uses the term *methods* to refer to specific teaching activities.

As discussed in section 5.2, different approaches have emerged within TBLT, representing different views of the role and properties of tasks in the instructional L2 setting. Samuda and Bygate (2008) maintain that in task-based language teaching and learning, tasks define the syllabus, and assessment is based on task performance. Samuda and Bygate distinguish a task-based approach from a task-referenced approach. They state that in a task-referenced approach, the goals or outcomes of learning and teaching are described and measured in terms of target achieving tasks, while tasks are not necessarily used for teaching and learning. Samuda and Bygate further explain that in a task-supported learning and teaching, tasks are used along with other teaching activities to actualize the curriculum, or to enrich the syllabus. Ellis (2009) argues that task-based teaching has a design and a usage dimension. He distinguishes task and syllabus design from the methodology, which directs the classroom organization and activities.

Ellis (2009) maintains the importance of considering contextual factors in applying methodology, stating that he supports the use of task-based methods along with other teaching methods. Considering the importance of contextualizing TBLT, Kumaravadivelu (2006) and Van den Branden (2009) emphasize the mediating role of the teacher in the effectuation of language affordances with regard to the particular learning setting.

The use of target tasks or assessment tasks to assess learners' language proficiency is considered an essential component of TBLT (Van den Branden, 2006). According to Ellis (2003), reliability and validity are crucial requirements when considering task-based assessment. Different purposes, methods and measures for task-based assessment emerge from the literature and point towards the long-term value of using tasks at this level of pedagogic practice (Ellis, 2003:316).

5.4.1 Task-based methodology

Sharing methodological principles with communicative language teaching, TBLT maintains a synthetic approach in presenting language, however, recognizes the importance of attention to form. Ellis and Shintani (2014) discuss the principles underlying communicative instructional activities, first suggested by Johnson (1982), including the information transfer principle, information-gap principle, jigsaw principle and task dependency principle, that are compatible with SLA principles. However, they argue that communicative language teaching (CLT) is limiting in its weak form that uses language functions and notions as units of analysis, since this approach supports a structural syllabus, which is unlikely to match the learners' internal, non-linear language learning processes. They argue further that CLT focusses on fluency and does not develop grammatical competence. Ellis and Shintani describe TBLT as a strong form of communicative language teaching that affords authentic language use geared towards a non-linguistic task outcome. Ellis (2009) maintains the importance of attention to form in TBLT methodology.

Methodology includes principles for organizing class activities in terms of lesson structure and classroom interaction. Ellis (2009) discusses task-based lesson structures and classroom participatory structures that support the principles of task-based language teaching. He points out that although certain proponents of TBLT emphasize group work and a learner-centered methodology, tasks can also be performed by the teacher with the whole class, in pairs and individually. Ellis (2003, 2009) states that tasks can consist of different phases, including a pre-task phase, a main task phase and a post-task phase, although only the main task phase is

essential. Nunan (2004) proposes the use of the pre-task phase for schema-building, the task-proper phase for task completion, and the follow-up phase for whole class debriefing and corrective feedback. He emphasizes the interdependence of tasks or task components in order to support enabling skills. Willis and Willis (2007) describe a task-based framework in terms of a sequence that consists of pre-task priming activities or mini-tasks, a main task phase that includes planning a report and reporting back, a form focus phase, and a task repetition or evaluation phase. Both Ellis (2009) and Willis and Willis (2007) maintain the importance of including learner accountability into the task-based lesson structure, facilitating learner motivation and noticing. Skehan (1996) and Robinson (2010) support a cyclic model for task-based lessons. Skehan (1996) argues for cycles of analysis and synthesis to free up learners' attentional resources for restructuring of the interlanguage system, or for developing fluency. Robinson's SSARC model for task-based lessons recycles tasks with increasing pedagogic task complexity. (See sections 3.2.4 and 5.5.2 for a review of Robinson's SSARC model.) These different lesson structures and classroom interaction patterns illustrate the variety that exists in task-based methodology, scaffolding and supporting meaning-focused language behaviour with regard to the learners' learning needs and goals within a specific context.

It is generally accepted that focus on form facilitates more effective communication. Kumaravadivelu (2006) considers the shift from communicative language teaching to task-based language teaching as motivated by a greater need for attention to form in L2 pedagogy, but he points out that there are different methodological views on whether it should be dealt with proactively or reactively. Ellis (2009) discusses the different views on attention to form in TBLT, asserting that focus on form can be implemented implicitly or explicitly throughout any of the phases of the task-based lesson. Ellis maintains that didactic focus on form and conscious-raising represent a greater emphasis on attention to form, in task-based methodology. Different methods for affording attention to form, while primarily focusing on communicating meaning, are discussed further in section 5.4.2, and applied to the context of young beginner isiXhosa L2 learners in chapter 7.

In summary, task-based language teaching methodology affords purposeful communication that is meaning-focused. Variation in classroom organization allows for different participatory structures. Lesson structures incorporating sub-tasks or task phases scaffold L2 learning, introducing enabling knowledge and skills, grading input and task demands, and shifting attentional focus to different components of TL performance, allowing for L2 development. Ellis and Shintani (2014) motivate flexibility in task-based methodology, regarding the cultural

and social context of L2 learners. Supporting this view, Kumaravadivelu (2006) and Van den Branden (2009) emphasize the importance of the role of the teacher, who implements local perspectives in the instructional L2 setting. Ellis (2009) maintains that the flexible nature of task-based language teaching methodology supports the notion that TBLT as an approach rather than a method.

5.4.2 Task-based language teaching methods

Actual teaching activities or methods are necessarily highly contextualized. Spiro (2013) maintains that the teacher's methodological approach, the learners' needs and the learning situation determine the best method for the specific context. Willis and Willis (2007) describe good task-based classroom practices as generating interest, presented at an appropriate level of difficulty, and affording maximum opportunities to experience language. Spiro further maintains that the optimal teaching method engages the whole learner, and accelerates learning through interaction. This is the result of a process rather than a plan. Taking into account that actual task-based teaching methods manifest in the interaction, which depends on the dynamic properties of a particular context of learning interacting with the internal factors of the task participants, a review of different generic task-based teaching methods contributes to a better understanding of applied task-based theories, and the variety that exists within the field of task-based language teaching and learning. Research on task-based language teaching analyzes and evaluates a number of different teaching activities that afford L2 acquisition (Ellis, 2003, Nunan, 2004, Spiro, 2013, Van den Branden, 2007, Willis and Willis, 2007).

The important role of the context of teaching and learning in deciding and shaping task-based teaching methods is supported by research identifying the factors impacting on the task process. Berben, Van den Branden and Van Gorp (2007) describe how a single task-design is interpreted and co-constructed differently by the teacher and learners in three different primary school classrooms. They maintain that tasks are flexible material used for a variety of purposes. In these schools, the teaching activities reflected pedagogic principles that ranged from expressing language proficiency through creative target language usage, or developing cooperative learning skills, to regulating L1 use during task performance for L2 learning. Berben, Van den Branden and Van Gorp point out the importance of the teacher's evaluation and expectations of the learning context in deciding the teaching and learning activities that result from the use of pedagogic tasks. Spiro (2013) investigates contextual factors impacting on the learning situation, including the dominant culture with its world views, the curriculum demands, the

instructional time and TL contact time, the size of the class, and learners' previous knowledge. Nunan (2004) proposes that teachers evaluate the implementability of tasks within the context, considering available resources and organizational or management complexities, the combinability of tasks with other tasks and the problematicity or difficulty of the tasks in terms of learners' abilities (2004:173).

Learner motivation, proficiency levels and learning goals are important factors that shape classroom interaction and task-based teaching methods. Spiro emphasizes the relevance of learner aptitude and age in deciding the preferred learning method (2013:36). Berben, Van den Branden and Van Gorp further maintain that learners' perceptions of the purpose of tasks determining and motivating learner involvement, and ultimately the learning potential of a task. Muñoz (2017) reviews a number of studies that indicate the importance teaching methods for young learner motivation. Muñoz maintains that learner motivation is largely determined by learners' perceivance of the relevance of lesson outcomes in terms of their learning needs and goals. These views support the affordances theory arguing that internal affordances are dynamic, determining whether a learner perceives language learning affordances presented by a task, and whether the external individual language affordances are effectuated. (In section 2.2.4.2, the affordances theory advancing the importance of learner engagement and the role of internal individual language affordances for language acquisition is discussed.)

Method is described in terms of the actual interaction resulting from the task plan. According to Van den Branden, Van Gorp and Vershelst (2007) it is the quality and quantity of language produced, as well as the intensity with which the language is processed, that determine a task's learning potential. Willis and Willis (2007) explore teachers' effective classroom practices affording learner engagement. They argue that when the teacher uses the TL for classroom organization and for giving task instructions, it creates an authentic communicative context and a purpose for listening. They maintain that effective L2 teachers consider the degree of difficulty and learners' language proficiency, when they use the learners' L1 for translations, for verifying comprehension and during certain priming activities. Willis and Willis argue that teachers' lock-step presenting practices constitute a negative language affordance, and, instead, propose that group, pair and individual task-based work allow learners to work within their own capabilities. Ellis (2003) supports individual work for the development of learner autonomy. Willis and Willis advance structured discussion, creative projects and competitive games for affording learner interest and engagement. García-Carbonell, Rising, Montero and Watts (2001) analyze simulations and games in instructed language acquisition, pointing out that a set

of guidelines or rules provide an explicit reference system or structure for interactive participation. Tomlinson and Masuhara (2009) analyze the benefits of physical games played at different levels with learners of different ages, in different cultures, maintaining that games afford learner engagement and deep processing of language. They argue that these physical activities are task driven, when they require a physical outcome that can only be achieved through language use. Tomlinson and Masuhara treat the game as a text with rich and structured input. These views regarding games in task-based teaching are applied to specific methodologies affording learner awareness in task-based isiXhosa L2 teaching of young beginner learners in primary school intermediate phase, in section 7.3.2.1 (target tasks 1 and 6). However, Nunan (2004) and Willis and Willis (2007) maintain the importance of learner accountability in the task-based language classroom, arguing that it provides purpose and affords learner involvement. Willis and Willis suggest a variety of end-products for tasks to establish accountability, such as a performance, report or illustration.

It is argued that focus on form and explicit knowledge afford L2 development, and can increase the rate of second language acquisition. (See sections 2.2.4.1, 2.5.2 and 4.4.4.) Ellis (2003) refers to Long's (1991) coinage of the term "focus on form" to describe engaging learners' attention to form, while they are primarily focused on communicating a message, during communicative activities. Nasaji and Fotos (2011) explore focus on form through interactional feedback, which occurs reactively in response to learners' non-target-like utterances, yet maintaining that focus on form can also be pre-planned and occur proactively. They refer to Ellis's (2009) distinction between input providing and output prompting strategies, and propose reformulations and elicitations as two basic interactional feedback categories. Recasts, direct correction and metalinguistic feedback are examples of reformulations, while clarification requests or prompts, direct elicitation, repetition and nonverbal feedback are examples of different types of elicitations. Nasaji and Fotos further maintain that task-based interactional feedback can either focus on message comprehensibility, and as such, focus on meaning, or be pedagogical, and negotiate form.

Ellis (2003) describes focused tasks as affording learners' incidental attention to predetermined linguistic forms, while processing input or output. He maintains that focused input tasks can assure the use of specific linguistic forms better than focused output tasks. Ellis (2003) considers listen-and-do tasks with a physical action or non-verbal response for a task outcome, asserting that such methods are effective for affording listening comprehension, and for introducing new vocabulary, especially for beginner learners. He supports claims that

premodified input can be just as effective for noticing as interactionally modified input. Ellis further argues that focused tasks have the essential properties of a task. He motivates this view describing a structured production task, namely dictogloss tasks, as primarily focusing on meaning, while the task outcome of accurate text content requires the reconstruction of the original text, rather than its linguistic replication. Ellis also describes consciousness-raising tasks as problem-solving tasks with language as the task content, and an understanding of how a linguistic feature functions within a certain context as the task outcome. However, he maintains that beginner learners will need to use their L1 to metalinguistically describe the target grammar features, during these explicit form-focused tasks. He points out that the language classroom has its own natural communicative patterns and rules, and, as such, provides a context for task authenticity. This view is supported by Barac and Bialystok's (2011) argument that metalinguistic knowledge development is an integral part of language teaching at school (see section 4.4.1.1).

In sum, task-based teaching methods result from authentic classroom interaction, afforded by communicative tasks with specific task outcomes, used within a particular time-space presenting L2 teaching goals meeting learner needs. Nassaji and Fotos (2011) argue that learners need a lot of time and exposure to the TL to restructure implicit language knowledge. They maintain that there is no single method that addresses all the goals of language pedagogy. Nunan (2004) and Nassaji and Fotos advance multifaceted language instruction, focusing on meaning and form, in order to address the L2 development goals of complexity, accuracy and fluency.

5.4.3 Task-based assessment

In section 2.5, assessment was described as a basic component of the language curriculum. Ellis (2003) maintains that task-based assessment is defined by its direct and performance-referenced characteristics. Colpin and Gysen also describe these characteristics, emphasizing the limiting nature of task-based assessment as an approach assessing as directly as possible the ability to perform a specific target language task, within a particular communicative setting (2006:152). Colpin and Gysen maintain that task-based teaching and learning goals, methodology and assessment are mutually connected. An affordance approach investigates the functions of assessment, as well as the validity and reliability of task-based assessment, by considering what is tested, and how this is done.

Assessment is a necessary component of any language programme. Colpin and Gysen (2006) explain that assessment provides valuable information regarding the language learner's current proficiency, continuous language development and/or achievement in a programme, but also about the attainability of the learning goals, and the efficiency of the programme. They point out that on-line evaluation of learners' performances is very difficult, and needs some form of recording. Colpin and Gysen suggest target-specific focused observation, along with continuous incidental observation, in addition to formal assessments. According to Ellis (2003), preliminary steps in designing a task-based test include defining the language ability that is to be measured. Ellis maintains that this can be done through a needs analysis approach focusing on domain and stereotypical tasks, or within a psycholinguistic approach that considers how task design effects language processing. The former entails the observation and analysis of actual language use, and is defined in terms of target tasks. Ellis considers this approach to inform a direct, holistic and performance-referenced type of assessment. According to Colpin and Gysen (2006), task-based assessment can at best be semi-direct, as test tasks are simulations of the reality. On the other hand, an indirect approach to task-based assessment considers the language user's underlying abilities, and, therefore, is more analytic and psycholinguistic. Colpin and Gysen state that indirect tests consider attainment goals in terms of specific knowledge, skills, strategies and modes of language usage. They maintain that in task-based assessment, real-world tasks are not used to elicit and assess components of the language system, but that the performance of the task itself is the ability that is being tested. Ellis (2003), as well as Colpin and Gysen (2006), posits that all task-based assessment lie on a continuum between direct and indirect assessment.

The extent to which an assessment procedure fulfills its function, measuring the language ability which it is designed for, is referred to as validity (Ellis, 2003:352). Ellis (2003) states that test reliability manifests in the consistency of test results. Colpin and Gysen (2006) argue that a task-based test measuring oral performance of a target task represents high content validity, however, they point out that assessing oral performances is time consuming and costly, and correlates negatively with test reliability due to subjective measuring methods. Colpin and Gysen point out that direct performance-referenced tests aiming to measure general language proficiency is problematic, as the assessment measures a specific performance of a particular target language task. Maintaining that greater quantity and variety afford higher validity, they suggest alternating roles for the speaker and listener, and incorporating a selection of different

topics and conditions, representing diverse relationships with variable degrees of familiarity and status.

Assessment requires a reliable system for measuring and evaluating the language performance in terms of specified variables. Robinson (2011a) emphasizes the importance of ensuring a consistent level of complexity when testing across multiple, parallel versions of testing tasks, so as to ensure the comparability of findings across tasks, and across the population of learners. (See section 5.5.2 for a further discussion of the Cognition Hypothesis and task complexity.) Ellis (2003) discusses the inseparability of content knowledge and language ability, emphasizing the importance of content familiarity for test-takers in order to ensure validity. Colpin and Gysen (2006) argue that performance-reference tests may test coping strategies used to complete the task, while compensating for poor language ability. The reliability of task-based test results also improve with quantity and variety (Colpin and Gysen, 2006:162). If a test is reliable, then the results will truly reflect the learner's ability. Ellis (2003) states that negative emotional individual affordances of the test-taker and the subjectivity of the assessing methods may cause problems with the reliability of task-based tests. Indirect tests that assesses specific skills or knowledge are generally more reliable than direct tests. Colpin and Gysen further maintain that testing receptive skills affords more objective scoring than testing productive skills. They state that an explicit task framework and working within a familiar format are positive affordances for the test-taker. Colpin and Gysen suggest that independency of steps will also improve test reliability. They propose that as reliability and validity correlates negatively, a balance between direct and indirect task-based testing affords the truest results.

Ellis (2003) describes different methods for measuring task-based performances. He includes discourse analysis that examines sociolinguistic features or linguistic features, measured in terms of fluency, accuracy and complexity, or evaluates discourse and strategic competence. However, Ellis points out that a discourse analysis is a very time consuming method of measuring task-based performances. Maintaining that external ratings are subjective measures of task-based performances, he suggests that task-dependent descriptive scales can improve reliability. The scales specify the language or behavioural competencies, as well as the level of the performance for a specific task. According to Ellis, self-assessment is an alternative method that saves time, while affording a reflective attitude and learner autonomy. However, as a formal measure of task-based performance, self-assessment may negatively affect test reliability and validity. Colpin and Gysen (2006) state that in the educational setting learning goals and educational programmes are associated with formal, indirect tests as the main method

of assessment. However, Ellis (2003) maintain the validity of task-based tests, proposing performance assessment where the task outcome is either right or wrong, pointing out the plausibility of direct assessment with closed task outcomes as a quick, easy and objective measure of performance.

Colpin and Gysen (2006) argue that the relations between learning goals, methodology and assessment are multidirectional. In section 2.5.2, positive washback of assessment procedures that are aligned with instructional goals and activities was discussed as an affordance for L2 learning. Colpin and Gysen describe the washback effects of task-based assessment in Flemish schools' second language classroom practices. Colpin and Gysen (2006) refer to Ramaut et al.'s (2003) study indicating the importance of motivating and describing explicit attainment goals to educators. They describe how Flemish teachers' awareness of attainment goals, which are defined in terms of complex target tasks, and their ability to manipulate task complexity by adjusting specific parameters brought about a change in teachers' approach to L2 teaching. Teachers were able to manipulate the complexity level of tasks to accommodate learners' current levels of proficiency. They conclude that when teachers understood the fundamental link between L2 acquisition and the developing ability to perform more complex tasks in the test, some teachers in Brussels stopped using more traditional assessment methods and started using and adapting the observation instruments for their learners' assessment.

The reciprocal relationship between task-based assessment and task-based teaching is based on a common approach. According to Colpin and Gysen (2006), task-based assessment measures and describes learners' proficiency in terms of the ability to perform increasingly more difficult and varied language tasks. They point out the dynamic relationship between cognitive, contextual and linguistic dimensions of real life language performances. This relationship reinforces the uniformity between teaching and testing practices in terms of content and grading. In section 6.10, this relationship between language development and dynamic language assessment is explored further.

To summarize this section, it is generally argued in research that task-based methodology and assessment are based on the principle that eliciting authentic language use is the most direct method for teaching and testing language proficiency. Task-based methodology is a communicative approach that balances focus on meaning and focus on form. Classroom activities that result from the use of tasks vary according to the learning goals, learners' needs and the particular teaching context. Task-based teaching methods afford whole-learner

engagement in language use experience, when methods match learners' needs, interests and abilities, while gradually develop in complexity to continue challenging learner's TL knowledge and communicative skills, as well as promoting learner autonomy and accountability. Robinson (2010) maintains that tasks afford external and internal learning processes, but language development depends on principled decisions about task grading and sequencing.

5.5 TASK-BASED SYLLABUS DESIGN

A syllabus structures the learning contents of the curriculum. According to Robinson (2010), the function of a language syllabus is to coordinate instructional and testing activities in a language teaching programme. Robinson argues that syllabus design is based on decisions of how to best afford language development, including what units to use for instruction and how to sequence the units when presenting them to the learners. Kim and Tracy-Ventura (2011) assert that tasks are a necessary and sufficient component for syllabus design. They maintain that task performances incorporate the input and output processing needed for L2 development. Robinson (2001) argues that tasks as the basic unit of analysis of syllabuses allow for matching instruction with learners' specific needs, and in this way, afford learner interest and motivation. In this section, several perspectives and findings regarding the affordances theory in curriculum design and language development, discussed previously, are integrated and consolidated, supporting a task-based syllabus for young beginner learners.

5.5.1 The task-based syllabus

In section 2.5.1, the properties of a task-based syllabus were analyzed applying the affordances theory. It was proposed that the individual learner's immediate experiential goals and language usage needs are central to the perceiving and effectuation of a set of language affordances, constituting a domain for language development. Tasks engage learners in motivating communicative activities. In section 2.2.4.1, situational interest and focus on form were considered within the affordances theory. Concrete, physical tasks that require some form of information exchange, and promote general cognitive development with topics that are relevant to the learners' social milieu were identified as external individual affordances for young language learners. The grading and sequencing of tasks in the task-based syllabus must be flexible, allowing of for task complexity adjustment matching the learners' abilities and learning needs.

Different types of task-based syllabi represent different approaches to task-based learning and teaching, reflecting the teaching goals, learning needs and the function of the learning context. Ellis (2009) proposes three types of task-based syllabi, namely a syllabus consisting only of unfocused tasks, a syllabus consisting of focused tasks and a hybrid syllabus. Age, context and proficiency level are important factors when deciding on task type and the degree of explicitness in focus on form. Ellis (2003, 2009) supports a modular approach and a hybrid task-based syllabus, regarding the learner's growing L2 competence for the gradual introduction of, and increasingly greater importance assigned to more explicit focus on form. In section 3.2.4, explicit learning was investigated, and the role of L1 knowledge with regard to language experience and age was discussed. Findings related to metalinguistic behaviour in very young learners, and the age-related development of formal operational abilities are considered, when motivating focused tasks in a hybrid task-based syllabus. In the primary school, educational goals, including explicit metalinguistic knowledge, and learners growing dependence on analytic explicit learning processes motivate focused tasks, whereas general communicative competence requires implicit knowledge afforded by unfocused tasks. In chapter 7, focused and unfocused tasks affording noticing in young beginner isiXhosa L2 learners in the primary schools are explored.

The dynamic dimension in the affordances theory takes into consideration how L2 learners' learning needs change over time. It supports a flexible task-based syllabus, allowing the grading and recycling of tasks, adjusting task complexity on a cline to match the learners' L2 development. Furthermore, focused task and interactional focus on form respond to individual learners' needs and abilities, increasing the salience and affording the perceiving of TL properties identified as linguistic difficulty (see section 4.4.3). In section 2.2.2, it was argued that a match between the linguistic affordances in the input and learner's mechanisms of processing facilitates noticing. Tasks, as the primary units of analysis of the task-based syllabus, afford the recycling of language input so as to provide maximum opportunities for input to be noticed by the learners. Nunan (2004) agrees that task input factors and learner's individual factors are interdependent in determining the level of difficulty of a task. Ellis (2003) also considers the input medium, discourse mode and output medium as influencing the language processing challenge. Nunan states that a learner's linguistic and content knowledge interact to add to the difficulty of a particular task. Nunan identifies factors that contribute to the cognitive and grammatical or code complexity of tasks. These issues regarding task difficulty was discussed in section 4.4.3. However, Robinson (2010) asserts that only the cognitive

demands of tasks in terms of conceptualization, attention, memory and reasoning processes, are considered for syllabus design sequencing tasks. When grammatical complexity is analyzed and considered for task grading, then task sequencing will be determined in structural terms. Instead, Robinson's (2010) Cognition Hypothesis informing task grading and sequencing is based on cognitive linguistic theory that concerns a conceptual-linguistic interface during language performance. In the following section these issues are discussed further. In chapter 6, the grading and sequencing of tasks and task components invoking Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis is illustrated with target tasks for young beginner isiXhosa L2 learners.

To summarize this section, the task based syllabus uses tasks as the unit of analysis and may incorporate focused and unfocused tasks depending on the learners' age and abilities, the language difficulty and the instructional context. L2 development is afforded by grading and sequencing tasks with increasing task complexity. A flexible task-based syllabus allows the reflective teacher to adjust task complexity and to introduce greater focus on form, facilitating noticing and scaffolding learning.

5.5.2 The Cognition Hypothesis

The Cognition Hypothesis was first conceived by Robinson (1995) in research investigating task complexity, and developed subsequently to include the Triadic Componential Framework for task qualification and the SSARC model for task sequencing (Robinson, 2010). Robinson (2011a) states that the main pedagogic aim of the Cognition Hypothesis is to sequence tasks in language programmes for the purpose of promoting L2 development. According to Robinson (2010), the main pedagogic claim of the Cognition Hypothesis is that optimal task sequencing starts with tasks that are simple on all parameters of task demands, and then, gradually increases the cognitive complexity of the tasks that follow. Robinson (2010) proposes a Simple, Stable, Automatization, Restructuring and maximum Complexity (SSARC) model for recycling a single task while increasing L2 pedagogic task complexity. Robinson (2010) proposes the Triadic Componential Framework for operationalizing task design and task sequencing decisions. Gilabert, Barón and Levkina (2011) assert that the Cognition Hypothesis is currently the only model that describes how task complexity may effect L2 production and L2 acquisition, maintaining that this information can be used by teachers and syllabus designers to sequentially organize tasks in a syllabus. Robinson (2010) proposes a syllabus design that maps target task analyses to increasingly complex pedagogic task versions.

According to Robinson (2011a), an understanding of the nature of the tasks presented in a task-based language teaching programme determines the instruction across sequences of tasks, within the specified time for the particular programme. Robinson's Triadic Componential Framework posits task conditions that describe task characteristics according to the behavioural demands of tasks. These include interactional demands, such as whether there is more than one outcome (+/- open solution), whether all participants are expected to contribute and agree on the solution (+/- one-way flow, +/- convergent solutions), the number of participants (+/- few), and the amount and nature of interaction needed (+/- few contributions, +/- negotiation not needed). Task conditions also determine the participants' roles and status (+/- equal status and role). For instruction and research purposes Robinson's Componential Triadic Framework lists other interactant demands made by task conditions: +/- same proficiency, +/- same gender, +/- familiar, +/- shared content knowledge, and +/- shared cultural knowledge. According to Robinson (2011b), SLA research studies indicate how these participant variables influence task interaction. Robinson (2010) maintains that the task conditions affect the nature and the amount of interactions and if these conditions are kept constant during a cycle of task performances allowing task familiarity, then the interactive task performance will become effectively embedded in the learner's memory, while scripts and schemata will be rehearsed and extended.

Robinson's (2011a) Componential Triadic Framework presents L2 learners' abilities and affective factors that influence task performance and learning. Robinson describes this task component as *task difficulty*. Learners may test high or low for language abilities, namely working memory, reasoning, task-switching, aptitude, field independence and mind or intention reading. Albert (2011) suggests that learner creativity also affects task performance. The learner affective variables and task-relevant state-trait differentials that are proposed by Robinson's (2010) Componential Triadic Framework, include openness to experience, control of emotion, task motivation, processing anxiety, willingness to communicate, and self-efficacy. The Cognition Hypothesis claims that individual differences in affective and cognitive abilities contribute to perceptions of task difficulty and will increasingly differentiate learning and L2 performances, as tasks increase in complexity. However, Robinson (2010) points out that individual factors are difficult to determine prior to instructional programmes, and, therefore, do not play a role in syllabus design.

Robinson (2010) applies the Cognition Hypothesis to task-based syllabus design in a cyclic order. Robinson (2011a) maintains that increasing the cognitive demands of tasks places greater functional and communicative demands on learners, leading to greater accuracy and complexity

in L2 production. He maintains further that it also promotes greater effort at conceptualization, and, therefore, results in more interaction affording the development of L2 linguistic resources. The Cognition Hypothesis supports the inherent repetition and scaffolded elaboration of input in L2 performances staged from simple to complex, affording the automatization of complex L2 task performances through cyclic task sequences. Robinson explains that greater cognitive and conceptual task demands create affordances for learners to direct their attentional and memory resources to lexical, morphological and syntactic aspects of the L2 system, which are necessary for comprehending and communicating meaning.

Robinson's (2011a) Componential Triadic Framework describes the cognitive demands made by tasks as *task complexity*, including resource-directing variables, namely describing events that happen elsewhere in time and space as compared to the simpler condition of a shared context with current events (+/- here-and-now), multiplicity (+/- few elements), describing position, motion and manner (+/- spatial reasoning), using mental state verbs with syntactic complementation referring to the cause or intention of actions (+/- causal reasoning and +/- intentional reasoning), and taking multiple perspectives on an event, aspect or location (+/- perspective-taking). Task complexity is further determined by performative or procedural demands made by tasks. These task characteristics disperse attention over non-linguistic task demands, including resource-dispersing variables, namely on-line planning (+/- planning time), number of task components (+/- single task), absence of a format that provides support (+/- task structure), longer tasks (+/- few steps), interdependence amongst subtasks (+/- independency of steps), and topic or task familiarity (+/- prior knowledge).

According to Robinson (2010) the SSARC model posits that only characteristics of task complexity are manipulated during task design, as only these characteristics can be mapped operationally from target task descriptions to pedagogic task designs. The SSARC model recycles a single task during four phases, thus allowing teachers to increase the number of practice opportunities in each phase in accordance with task difficulty or the learners' needs. The task sequence starts by accessing learners' current language knowledge, identifying a task simple on all the cognitive parameters. The teacher may need to repeat the simple version of a task to ensure that the learners have the necessary knowledge and skills to cope with the task. In terms of the SSARC model, resource-dispersing dimensions of complexity are increased first to afford the automatization of access to current interlanguage. Once a learner is able to perform this procedurally more complex task version, resource-directing dimensions are increased to promote language development through new form-concept mappings, and consequently, the

restructuring of the current interlanguage system. Robinson (2010) maintains that all progress is a result of a match between individual learner's strengths and weaknesses in performance related abilities and the cognitive processing demands that the instructional tasks place on the learner. Learners progress differently and teachers need to accommodate these differences. It may be required for a learner to repeat a step in the task cycle a number of times. The teacher makes decisions regarding learners' progress on grounds of on-line observations and task performance evaluations. With regards to the final phase of the task cycle proposed by Robinson's SSARC model, maximum complexity is introduced to destabilize current interlanguage systems requiring mental effort along resource dispersing and resource directing dimensions.

Robinson (2010) maintains that complex cognition, which is needed when performing target real-world tasks, develops through scaffolded attempts performing simpler tasks. He argues that simpler tasks or subcomponents of tasks must be identified and described in terms of task conditions and task complexity variables. Robinson (2011a) asserts that task analysis is probably the most important procedure of the instructional design process. Task difficulty is the result of individual learner factors interacting with task demands, during task performance. As such, it depends on the teacher's in-context professional decision-making identifying an appropriate task difficulty match, and adjusting task complexity. (See section 4.4.1.2 and 5.4.2 for a further discussion of the central role that teachers play in deciding the teaching methods by evaluating the learning context and learners' need.)

In sum, the Cognition Hypothesis is concerned with identifying the subcomponents of tasks, described in terms of complexity variables, and sequencing and staging tasks according to cognitive task complexity, affording L2 development in the instructed second language learning setting. These processes are explored in chapter 6 with target communicative tasks for young beginner isiXhosa L2 learners.

5.5.3 A task-based syllabus for young learners

The investigation of complexity in L2 learning for young learners in the instructional context identified a number of principles for applying the Cognition Hypothesis to task-based syllabus design. (See section 4.4.3.) Ellis and Shintani (2014) state that in task-based language teaching, the principles for syllabus design and methodology are merged. A central approach to curriculum design supports this notion, emphasizing methodology, focusing on the process of task-based learning, as creating language affordances. (See sections 2.5.1 and 5.4.1 for a

discussion of the affordances theory in curriculum design, exploring Richard's central curriculum design and task-based teaching methodology, respectively.) In section 5.2, tasks are defined as holistic language teaching tools that afford interactional authenticity, while controlling TL input complexity promotes complexity in task performance, varying the relationship between focus on meaning and focus on form to allow noticing and implicit learning. (In sections 4.4.2.3 and 4.4.3, complexity was explored as a component of language production and an attribute of language learning.) The Cognition Hypothesis proposes task complexity as the only consideration for task sequencing in task-based syllabuses (Robinson, 2010:247). However, as pointed out in section 4.4.3, considering learner ability and age, complexity can be perceived as a positive or negative affordance for L2 learning. In section 5.4.3, complexity is described as an important factor affording reliability in task-based assessment. The validity, reliability and the feasibility of task-based assessment for pedagogic practices that apply a task-based syllabus for teaching young beginner L2 learners are explored in the literature, integrating cognitive and sociocultural perspectives (Housen and Kuiken, 2009).

Task-based syllabus design regards young learners' social and cognitive development, when specifying communicative task contents in terms of topics and task types. A task-based approach as a central approach to syllabus design is motivated for young, beginner learners (aged 9-12 years) from an affordance theories' perspective, focusing on methodology with communicative tasks to address learners' immediate, experiential needs, creating affordances for L2 learning. However, Ellis (2003) points out that task-based curriculum design also includes decisions about content. The contents of communicative tasks can be analysed according to the basic functions of language. Nunan refers to Halliday's three macrofunctions of language, namely the transactional, social and aesthetic functions (2004:19). Nunan describes the transactional function of language as represented in interaction for the exchange of services, information or objects. Nunan (2004) describes the interpersonal or social function that is used for socializing, and the aesthetic function of language that is used for enjoyment, maintaining that all three macrofunctions are often combined in natural interaction. Advancing that planning a task-based syllabus starts with decisions regarding the content, Ellis (2003) suggests that the purpose of the language programme determines the range of language and skills to be taught. In section 4.4.2.2, a multilingual model for measuring L2 development was motivated with reference to the instructional context explaining the holistic nature of primary school curriculums. Hughes (2010) advances an all-round linguistic and cognitively

developmental syllabus for young, beginner learners. Ellis (2003) refers to a general purpose pedagogic focus. Van Gorp and Bogaert (2006) maintain the importance of task types and content, arguing that the syllabus designer has to develop tasks that motivate learners to engage and to persist in task performance.

Supporting a sociocultural perspective regarding learner motivation, Van Gorp and Bogaert (2006) maintain that pedagogical tasks have to present a clear link with real-world target tasks that learners are supposed to be able to perform. Balancing situational and interactional authenticity is a function of task-based syllabus design with a general purpose pedagogic focus. Ellis (2003, 2009) supports the enabling function of pedagogic tasks with interactional authenticity. (See section 5.2 for a discussion of task authenticity.) School life comprises an important and significant part of a child's world. Ellis (2003) maintains that the language classroom provides a unique context for authenticity. Primary schools are associated with rules and specific codes of behaviour. The young learner's school life involves academic language and cross-curricular academic themes, as well as physical education and sport. Although learning basic communicative skills mainly focuses on listening and speaking skills, literacy and metalinguistic knowledge are generally regarded as primary educational objectives in the school context, while also supporting language development and learner autonomy. (See section 2.2.2 for a discussion of the affordances theory and learner autonomy, and section 4.4.2 for an analyses of multilingual learner language development in the instructional context.)

The different task types, task methodology and methods included in a task-based syllabus represent the underlying syllabus design decisions regarding the relationship between meaning and form, and implicit and explicit learning (see section 4.2.2). Studies conducted within the fields of child first language acquisition, cognitive second language acquisition and language teaching support the introduction of comprehension tasks before production tasks for beginner learners: most notably Shi's (2013) study of early L1 acquisition, and Ellis's (2003) views on listen-and-do tasks and focused input tasks controlling task-essential language forms. However, the importance of language production, pushed output and attention to form for language development is maintained throughout (Keck and Kim, 2014). Generally, research in L2 language development confirms that L2 acquisition starts with lexical items and formulaic expressions, and moves towards greater creativity and variety. (See section 4.3.2.3.)

Childhood language development theories propose that learners develop a greater capacity for metalinguistic awareness and language analysis during middle childhood and early adolescence

(Wray, 2008). These arguments support Ellis's (2003) modular approach to language curriculum development for primary education, discussed previously in section 5.5.1. Van Gorp and Bogaert (2006) maintain that in task-based language teaching form follows function. They support a syllabus type consisting of unfocused task, maintaining that the task-based syllabus designer is not mainly concerned with the relevance of linguistic elements for particular tasks, although linguistic elements derive their relevance from task-naturalness during performance.

Rather than form, Van Gorp and Bogaert (2006) emphasize the importance of task type and learner motivation for the effectuation of language affordances. From Dutch schools' task-based teaching implementation studies, they list games, quizzes, tasks embedded in a story line, an interesting goal that enhances learners' innate curiosity, and unusual or exciting topics as effective tasks. Other researchers have advanced physical games (Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2009), high levels of activity (Ghosn, 2013) and teamwork (Eddy-U, 2015) for engaging learners in pedagogic tasks. In section 5.4.2, these and other task-based methods are discussed.

Describing the important role of the teacher for learner motivation in the syllabus process, Van Gorp and Bogaert (2006) illustrate task-based methodology according to a three-phase task-based lesson. The teacher plays an integral role during the pre-task phase motivating the learners by introducing the task and providing instructions and relevant schemata. They state that the learner's interaction with the task and interaction with other task participants strongly influence the learner's motivation, during the actual task performance phase. Van Gorp and Bogaert maintain that the post-task phase offers many opportunities for focus on form and discussions regarding strategic communicative competence, as well as general learning strategies. (In section 4.4.1.1 research findings and perspectives on teacher talk were explored.) The relationship between focus on meaning and focus on form, or implicit and explicit learning, is a function of task type and task sequencing. Nunan's (2004) notion of 'task chaining' and Robinson's (2007) rationale for task sequencing recycle language, supporting an incremental, cumulative perspective on language learning, where the output of a task becomes input for the next task in a task-based syllabus.

The use of holistic tasks as units for organizing L2 learning in task-based syllabi is motivated by learners' non-linear differential language development that does not match analytic structural syllabi. In the syllabus, holistic tasks are graded in terms of task complexity, and not structural complexity. Robinson (2010) argues that task complexity affords linguistic

development through a conceptual-linguistic interface. Robinson advances that task-based L2 syllabus design analyzes the demands of target tasks, and then sequences initially simple and progressively more complex pedagogic task versions to approximate real-world target task demands. As discussed in section 5.5.2, the Cognition Hypothesis provides a rationale for sequencing pedagogic tasks for the purpose of creating language development affordances through complexity. For Robinson, it is the prospect of success and self-confidence based on task familiarity that provide motivation for the investment of the mental energy, which is required to deal with a more complex task version.

Robinson (2010) maintains that curriculum planning should match the cognitive processing demands of tasks to learners' abilities. In section 4.4.3, an analysis of complexity in tasks pointed out the implications of the limited and developing cognitive abilities of the young learner for implementing Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Especially, it was argued that abstract-reasoning abilities are limited and still developing in young learners. In section 4.4.3.1, different views on learning resources for young learners were described, including young learners' need for concrete, here-and-now materials supporting their cognitive processing. The Cognition Hypothesis predicts that individual differences in abilities, with age being a critical factor in this regard, manifest in the L2 performances of more complex tasks. However, the extent to which cognitive task demands, combining different complexity variables in task-based teaching practices invoking the Cognition Hypothesis, lie within the scope of young learners' cognitive and linguistic abilities needs to be explored further in task-based research.

Assessment as a regular component of the language curriculum at school, and the long-established testing traditions in educational institutions, coupled with teacher, learner and parents' expectations, present negative affordances for performance-based task-based assessment. However, Colpin and Gysen's (2006) study describes how task-based assessment is successfully introduced into Flemish schools and have a positive washback effect. (See section 5.4.3.) Ellis (2003) argues that task-based assessment has a greater formative than summative function. Hughes (2010) shares Ellis's view with regard to developing formative assessment materials for young learners. (Also see section 4.4.1.3.) Van Gorp and Bogaert (2006) suggest that the post-task phase should be used for reconstructing and reflecting on the process of task performance. They maintain that tasks are primarily designed to create an environment where learners can freely experiment with language and make mistakes - applying their existing linguistic resources. Van Gorp and Bogaert maintain that during the post-task

phase, class discussions, peer-evaluation and self-evaluation provide valuable formative opportunities. It is important to ensure that summative assessment tasks represents the instructional tasks and the outcomes of the syllabus to ensure validity and positive washback. (See sections 2.4.1 and 2.5.2.) Greater quantity and variety improves reliability. Hughes (2010) proposes a variety of assessment forms for young learners to accommodate individual differences and diverse learning styles. Ellis suggests that task-based assessment should be supplemented with indirect methods of assessment, as this would extent the scope and reliability of assessment results (2003:316).

The general goals of L2 acquisition are defined in terms of fluency, accuracy and complexity (Skehan, 1996). Task-based assessment measures L2 performance with reference to these criteria. Ellis (2003) discusses Skehan and Foster's (1997) analysis of these production components, and asserts that fluency, accuracy and complexity are distinct and can be measured separately. Ellis describes how task design and implementation variables may afford one or more of the L2 production components. (See section 5.3 for more research results supporting this view.) The Cognition Hypothesis relies on a cognitive-linguistic interface that supports specific measures of code complexity afforded by resource-directing cognitive complexity variables, while making specific claims regarding the performative dimension in relation to procedural demands and task conditions. A task sequence based on these claims supports dynamic assessment of the task production performance components invoking the Cognition Hypothesis. This view is explored further in section 6.10.

Summarizing this section, task-based syllabuses for young beginner learners structure the instructional and assessment activities with graded pedagogic tasks which approximate real-world target tasks. Van Gorp and Bogaert (2006) posit that task-based syllabuses take the learning needs of learners as the starting point affording learner motivation. The learning aim of general language proficiency, as well as social and academic needs of young beginner learners in primary schools inform the content of target tasks. The Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2010) provides a rationale for sequencing tasks, and also informs assessment measures, allowing the adaptation of pedagogic tasks to match the individual learner's abilities and their linguistic and cognitive developmental needs. Assessment tasks measure the learners' performance ability according to fluency, accuracy and complexity dimensions. (Task-based assessment tasks are explored further according to these dimension in section 6.10.)

5.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter, an approach to task-based teaching and task-based syllabus design for young learners, which considers meaningful language use as both the tool and the goal of L2 teaching, was analyzed and explored within task-based language learning and teaching literature, integrating various theoretical perspectives, including social, cognitive and educational linguistics.

Tasks were defined as holistic language learning activities with non-linguistic goals that afford interactional authenticity. However, meaningful language use is a complex skill and has to be simplified and systematically staged for learners (Robinson, 2010). The Cognition Hypothesis was examined, presenting a rationale for sequencing communicative tasks. The taxonomic Triadic Componential Framework and the SSARC model propose a theoretical rationale for analyzing, grading and methodically increasing task demands, maintaining an appropriately simplified level, affording complexity without overwhelming the learners' cognitive and linguistic resources. Task sequences provide comprehensible input with increasing cognitive complexity that challenges learners to discover new L2 conceptualizations, affording focus on form, while still retaining the holistic, meaningful quality of authentic language use.

An analysis of different lesson structures and classroom participatory structures, which support the general principles of a task-based approach to L2 teaching, described the flexibility of task-based methodology. Task-based teaching methods were described as specific classroom activities that consider the particular context and the individual learners' needs. Although this view considers methods as ultimately decided by interaction resulting from the individual participants' needs and goals within a particular learning setting, several different TBLT methods were explored for young learners, informing pedagogic practices regarding the creation of task-based language affordances. (In chapter 7, these findings regarding effective task-based methods for young learners are applied to the context of isiXhosa L2 teaching in primary school.) Additionally, task-based methods and task sequencing were described as representing a relationship between focus on meaning and focus on form, responding to the learners' learning needs and the teaching context. Task-based language learning is meaning-focused, however it incorporates focus on form, as semantic meaning relies on pragmatic meaning (Ellis and Shintani, 2014). Different types of focus on form methods lie on a continuum of explicitness, and range from implicit corrective feedback to explicit consciousness-raising activities. The role of the teacher in contextualizing learning contents is valued and

supported by the study of Van Gorp and Bogaert (2006), who argue that task-based teaching does not guarantee learner participation and L2 learning, but that the learning process takes place during actual interactional work. They maintain that teachers must take over from the syllabus and fine-tune the learning activities to meet the needs of individual learners. Task-based language teaching methodology is described in general terms as primarily focusing on meaningful communication, while focus on form affords noticing and effective language production. In chapter 7, focus on form and the role of the teacher in affording noticing are explored further within the context of isiXhosa L2 learning in primary school.

An interdisciplinary investigation of the literature informed decisions regarding task-based syllabus design for young beginner L2 learners, describing learning contents, task sequencing and assessment procedures. An analysis of learners' social and academic needs and interests, contextualized within the primary school environment with its particular educational objectives, inform decisions regarding task contents. Learner motivation and situational authenticity are afforded when task contents reflect the learners' experiential living world. Young learners' more limited language experience and cognitive abilities were specifically regarded in decisions about task design and the appropriate level of task complexity, affording language development through grading and sequencing tasks invoking Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Learning resource materials supporting young learners more concrete, here-and-now conceptualizations and their limited abstract reasoning were proposed, regarding the learners' age and level of linguistic and cognitive development. Yet, task contents remain cognitively challenging with curriculum subject topics that also afford situational authenticity in the school context, expanding learners' knowledge and their creative and critical thinking skills. These task contents are considered for young beginner isiXhosa L2 learners in the intermediate phase primary school analyzing cognitive and linguistic complexity in task design in chapter 6.

The Cognition Hypothesis's principles for sequencing tasks according to cognitive complexity, were explored as presenting a rationale for task-based assessment, albeit partly inverted. Task design and implementation in accordance with Robinson's taxonomic Triadic Componential Framework were invoked affording assessment along fluency, accuracy and complexity dimension of TL performance. Resource-directing variables allow teachers to assess the range of learners' linguistic resources in the TL, while the implementation of resource-dispersing variables measures the level of automatization or implicit TL knowledge. The application of

Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis and SSARC model for sequencing task components in assessment tasks are explored further in section 6.10.

The identification of target tasks, which fulfil transactional, social and aesthetic language functions answering the social, cognitive, linguistic and educational needs of young beginner L2 learners in a primary school setting, is the starting point for task analysis and syllabus design. Considering learners' immediate experiential needs affords intrinsic motivation. On the other hand, considering young learners' cognitive and linguistic abilities regards language processing and noticing of specific properties of the TL. Target tasks for young language learners in the instructional context also have to consider the educational needs and contextualizes the learning experience in an academic setting. See appendices 1-13 for example target tasks, simulating task-natural isiXhosa language contents, representing the living experiences of isiXhosa L2 learners in primary school intermediate phase, in the Eastern Cape, South Africa. These tasks are analyzed in terms of cognitive and linguistic complexity, supporting task-based L2 language teaching invoking Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis, in chapter 6.

CHAPTER SIX

AN ANALYSIS OF COGNITIVE COMPLEXITY AND LINGUISTIC COMPLEXITY IN TASK DESIGN FOR ISIXHOSA FOR BEGINNER LEARNERS IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOL INTERMEDIATE PHASE

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, complexity of task-based language learning of isiXhosa as a second language (L2) in primary schools is analysed, presenting a number of complexity indicators that can be applied to a range of pedagogic functions, including syllabus design, task design, methodology and assessment. This chapter examines real-world tasks as the point of departure for task-based language teaching (Nunan, 2004). It also examines Robinson's (2014) premises for task-based L2 syllabus design following from an analysis of the real-world target tasks that learners need to perform in the L2. For the purpose of analysis, simulated isiXhosa dialogues illustrate task-natural language contents of a selection of real-world target tasks (see appendices 1-13). This chapter explores the Cognition Hypothesis, identifying subcomponents and enabling skills that are necessary to perform target tasks (Robinson, 2010). (See section 5.5.2 for a discussion of the Cognition Hypothesis.) It aims through cognitive and interactive target task analyses to make explicit the levels of complexity according to Robinson's Triadic Framework (Robinson 2010, 2011a). Additionally, this chapter presents a linguistic analysis of each target task, manifesting the proposition of a cognitive-linguistic interface invoking Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2010).

As general communicative language proficiency is the aim of primary schools' additional language syllabi, this study applies the affordances theory in the learners' needs analysis, identifying a number of language use situations for L2 learners between the ages of nine and twelve years. Language affordances within a task-based syllabus for young beginner learners were analyzed and discussed in section 5.5.3. Applying the principles of task-based language learning and teaching in my second language isiXhosa classes provided insight into the value of experiential, goal-orientated, communicative activities, but highlighted the need for a systematic way to gradually expand and increase learners' linguistic resources through motivating communicative activities. Robinson's (2011a) Cognition Hypothesis proposes a non-linguistic approach to grading and sequencing communicative tasks so as to afford language development. In chapter 7 of this study, I also discuss how these properties of task

design inform the design of grammar-focused communication tasks and form-focused methodology, in planning for instructional practices that afford learner awareness of form.

The complexity analysis of target tasks, conducted in the current chapter, is executed at three levels. Firstly, a cognitive analysis of the target tasks is conducted in accordance with Robinson's Triadic Framework (Robinson and Gilabert, 2007, Robinson 2010, 2011a), identifying explicit features with regard to the cognitive complexity of target task performances, affording the grading of tasks adjusting task complexity to the specific needs of the L2 learner. The analysis of the cognitive factors contributing to task complexity is done with reference to Robinson's resource-directing and resource-dispersing variables, as specified in the Triadic Componential Framework (Robinson, 2010, 2011a). The second dimension of analysis investigates the interactive complexity. Robinson (2010) maintains that the interactional and interactant demands indicate the task type that matches the target task conditions. The analysis of interactive factors, in this study, is mainly concerned with the interactional demands, as the interactant demands are determined by the specific setting and learner. The third component of the Triadic Componential Framework, task difficulty, depends on individual learner factors and, therefore, also cannot be analyzed prior to task performances. (See section 5.5.2 for a more complete analysis of the Triadic Componential Framework.) The third dimension of the target task analysis investigates the linguistic complexity. Robinson (2010) states that in order to express meaning in the target language (isiXhosa), such as time, place and mental states, the learner has to remap conceptualizations to linguistic expressions in the target language, requiring lexis, grammar and syntax. A linguistic task analysis provides explicit features with regard to the developmental dimension of task complexity, describing syntactic complexity and identifying specific morphosyntactic forms that are useful in completing the task.

The analysis of target tasks is done in an attempt to present core features for facilitating young beginner learners' interlanguage development that can enhance performance. Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000) refer to this as the third level of speech analysis application, where the interest is primarily in complete units of speech production. They assert that speech analysis of oral interaction is generally considered problematic. Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth explicate a psycholinguistic planning perspective when analyzing speakers' utterances, contending that shorter, more complex micro-units correlate with greater proficiency. They maintain that subordination is a measure of complexity, adopting the Analysis of Speech unit for analyzing oral interaction. The Analysis of Speech unit functions mainly at syntactic level, allowing for analysis of mono- and multi-clause speech units. Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth

maintain that the planning and production of multi-clause units are associated with L2 development in instructed language learners. They consider coordinated and subordinated clauses to belong to a single Analysis of Speech unit, contending that a clause minimally consists of a finite or non-finite verb element with at least one other clause element. The written illustrations of simulated real-world interaction conveniently provide the sentence as a basic unit for syntactic analysis. However, cognitive complexity is illustrated across sentences and speech turns, focusing on a speaker's entire conceptualization afforded by the task's cognitive demands.

As the cognitive complexity analysis of the simulated isiXhosa target tasks in this chapter illustrates, different dimensions of complexity, as identified by Robinson (2005, 2010, 2011a), interact, often simultaneously requiring complexes of complexity features to construct meaning. Robinson, Cardierno and Shirai (2009) maintain that L2 task characteristics are represented as a plus or minus feature (see Robinson's Triadic Componential Framework, 2010:250), but they operate on a continuum, signifying that tasks require relatively less or more of different complexity features during task performance. Notably, tasks tend to demonstrate a task-naturalness for particular complexity features conceptualizing the focus of interaction. The analysis of the dimensions of cognitive complexity also explores the cognitive-linguistic interface that supports Robinson's (2010) Cognition Hypothesis. The complexity analysis conducted in the current chapter investigates how cognitive complexity affords lexical, grammatical and syntactic complexity. Robinson, Cardierno and Shirai (2009) advance specific measurements of lexical, semantic and clausal complexity. Robinson (2010) states that the conceptual demands, represented in the resource-directing variables, develop the ability to use more verb tenses, deictic expressions, mental state verbs and complementary sub-clauses. (See section 4.4.2.3 for a further discussion of specific and general linguistic complexity measures.)

The linguistic complexity analysis of tasks conducted in this chapter supports Robinson, Cardierno and Shirai's (2009) view of a concept-orientated analysis to identify task-natural linguistic devices. They maintain that general measurements of complexity, such as the Analysis of Speech unit, should be supplemented by specific morphosyntactic measures, which relate to the task demands. The linguistic analysis is conducted at two levels: syntactic complexity and lexical complexity. With regard to syntactic complexity, the present analysis regards Norris and Ortega's (2009) view that coordination is relevant to beginner levels, subordination is relevant to intermediate levels and subclausal or phrasal elaboration indicates advance levels of language development. For coordination, conjoined equally valued syntactic

parts are considered, while for subordination, dependent and embedded syntactic clauses are taken as measures of complexity (Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth 2000). According to Norris and Ortega, the length of phrases and the ratio nouns to verbs measure phrasal elaboration, and are used as a measure of complexity at advanced levels of language learning. However, as the present chapter investigates primary school learners' target tasks, the grammatical metaphor is expected to be in an elementary stage.

For the linguistic complexity analysis, the nominal phrases containing three or more lexical words are considered to require greater creativity. Lexical complexity in terms of lexical and functional word counts is problematic in isiXhosa, as isiXhosa is an agglutinative and highly inflexional language. This means that a single word, consisting of numerous morphemes, form a complete and multiplex sentence. The use of affixes to change the semantic meaning is also very common. For the purpose of this study, procedural lexical knowledge is considered and measured in terms of lexical productivity (Bulté, Housen, Pierrard and Van Daele, 2008). Lexical productivity relates to the task demands, and measures how many words (tokens) are needed to complete a task. The notion of task productivity is further supplemented with Ishikawa's (2015) notion of lexical density. Ishikawa counts the nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs (categories of type), and present it as a percentage to the total number of words (token) of the text. He argues that lexical density indicates the nature of the text, or its information orientation. He further maintains that it is a language development index, as beginners use mainly lexical words, while grammatical word usage increases with advancing abilities. The linguistic analyses of the dialogues present lexical complexity as a word count for the different lexical categories and the root of a word is counted once within each lexical category, for each subtask. No proper nouns are included in the noun count, as these are mostly lexical cross-linguistic transfers from the L1. (See section 3.3.3 for a discussion regarding cross-linguistic transfer.) For a further discussion of complexity measures in the components of L2 development, see section 4.4.2.3. Additionally, the linguistic analysis recognizing specific morphosyntactic measures of complexity informs focused tasks or proactive focus on form (see section 7.3).

In this chapter, each of the simulated dialogues with their corresponding task description specifications are analyzed according to the three complexity dimensions identified above, presenting an interactive component, a cognitive component and the linguistic component of task complexity. The thirteen target tasks, illustrating regular language use situations for learners in primary school intermediate phase, have subtasks with distinct task outcomes, which

are described in the task description specifications. Applying Robinson's dimensions of complexity to pedagogic tasks, representing the subtasks that are identified based on the task description specifications, allows for task grading and sequencing with increasing complexity in terms of the SSARC model (Robinson 2010, 2011a). See section 5.5.2 for an analysis of the SSARC model. The complete simulated dialogue, illustrating task-natural isiXhosa language contents in accordance with the task description specifications, for each target task is recorded in appendices 1-13. These isiXhosa dialogues are presented as illustrations, and not prescriptions, of task-natural isiXhosa conceptualizations afforded by the task demands. In section 6.9, a summary of the target tasks' complexity analyses in tabular form informs a framework for developing syllabi for learning and teaching isiXhosa second language in primary school intermediate phase, at beginner's level.

Finally, in section 6.10, Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis is further applied to task-based assessment, presenting a suggested framework for developing assessment tasks. A review of research findings in task design, regarding the effect of specific task demands on L2 task performance, inform this framework for assessment task design and sequencing. The principles for affording reliability and validity in assessment, which were identified in section 5.4.3, and the SSARC model for task sequencing are integrated into a task sequence, permitting the dynamic task-based measurement of L2 development in terms of fluency, accuracy and complexity dimensions. A multilingual model for measuring L2 development is regarded, evaluating task outcome achievement in terms of functional adequacy (see section 4.4.2).

6.2 TARGET TASK 1: AT THE TUCK SHOP

Target task 1 introduces a familiar situation at school and in children's daily lives – buying snacks at the shop. The transactional language has to conceptualize differentiating between different items when purchasing the goods. Communicative efficacy relies on accuracy and fluency, which are best afforded by an exemplar-based processing system or formulaic language. (In section 7.3.2, focus on form and specific pedagogic activities affording learner interest and motivation with reference to target task 1 are discussed.) The formulaic nature of the transactional language in this task makes it very accessible for beginner language learners. However, complexity and creativity in learner language production are afforded in the developmental dimension through task grading and sequencing that manipulates the resource-directing variables [- few elements, + spatial reasoning, + intentional reasoning].

6.2.1 Target task 1 description specifications

In this section, the task description specifications for target task 1 is presented in Xhosa and English and the subtasks are numbered alphabetically. (The English translations throughout the target tasks' description specifications and the simulated dialogues are not verbatim, as the same meaning is conceptualized differently within different languages. These free translations are not to be considered for the technical part informing the complexity analysis of this study in any way.) The table below gives the subtask description specifications along with the corresponding lines in the simulated dialogue for the target task. (See appendix 1 for the task description specifications and the complete simulated dialogue of target task 1.)

(a) Wena usevenkileni yesikolo, kwi"tuck shophu" ngamanye amagama. Ubulisana nonovenkile, aze abuze akuncede. (b) Ufuna ukuthenga into yokutya, kodwa imali yakho incinci. Ubuza amaxabiso ezinto ezithengiswayo ezithandwa nguwe ukuze uzikhethe ezona zikufanele. (c) Uchaza uhlobo lwazo, ibala lazo nendawo yasevenkileni zikhona kuyo. Unovenkile aze akunike ezo uzifunayo. (d) Uze ubhatalele izinto zakho zokutya, kodwa imali yakho incinci kunemali efunekayo. Kufuneka uyeke enye yezinto zakho zokuthenga. (e) Wakuphuma evenkileni uhlangana nabahlobo bakho ubarhalelise.

(a) You are at the school's tuck shop. You and the shop owner greet each other, and she asks to help you. (b) You want to buy something to eat, but you have little money. You ask the prices of some of the things for sale that you like in order to choose what you can buy. (c) You describe the type, colour and place where the things are that you want. The shop owner then gives you what you ask for. (d) You then pay for your eats, but you do not have enough money and have to return something. (e) When you leave the shop, you join your friends and tease them.

Subtasks	Task description specifications	Corresponding lines in target task simulation
(a)	Wena usevenkileni yesikolo, kwi"tuck shophu" ngamanye amagama. Ubulisana nonovenkile, aze abuze akuncede. <i>You are at the school's tuck shop. You and the shop owner greet each other and she asks to help you.</i>	Lines 16-21
(b)	Ufuna ukuthenga into yokutya, kodwa imali yakho incinci. Ubuza amaxabiso ezinto ezithengiswayo ezithandwa nguwe ukuze uzikhethe ezona zikufanele.	Lines 22-31, 36-41, 46-47, 52-65

(c)	<i>You want to buy something to eat, but you have little money. You ask the prices of some of the things for sale that you like in order to choose what you can buy.</i> Uchaza uhlobo lwazo, ibala lazo nendawo yasevenkileni zikhona kuyo. Unovenkile aze akunike ezo uzifunayo.	Lines 32-35, 42-45, 48-51
(d)	<i>You describe the type, colour and place where the things are that you want. The shop owner then give you what you ask for.</i> Uze ubhatalele izinto zakho zokutya, kodwa imali yakho incinci kunemali efunekayo. Kufuneka uyeke enye yezinto zakho zokuthenga. <i>You then pay for your eats, but you do not have enough money and have to return something.</i>	Lines 66-73
(e)	<i>Wakuphuma evenkileni uhlangana nabahlobo bakho ubarhalelise.</i> <i>When you leave the shop, you join your friends and tease them.</i>	Lines 74-77

6.2.2 Target task 1 interactive complexity analysis

This section presents an analysis of the interactive complexity in the task description specifications of target task 1. The investigation into the interactional demands is informed by a behaviour-descriptive analysis of the target task (Robinson, 2010). This contributes to the identification of pedagogic task types, in accordance with the taxonomy of task characteristics supporting language learning processes. (See sections 5.2 and 5.5.2 for a further discussion regarding task classification.) For this target task, one of the interactant variables [+/- equal status and role] should also be considered, as subtasks (a) – (d) are simulated in a dialogue between an adult attending to (or owning) the tuck shop and the child (the customer). Throughout these first four subtasks the register is informal, but the child maintains a respectful tone when addressing the older woman. In subtask (e), the dialogue is between two learners of equal status and the mood is teasing and playful. The analysis considers the interactional demands and the participation variables, as advanced in Robinson's Triadic Componential Framework for task classifications (2010:250).

Subtask (a) *You are at the school's tuck shop. You and the shop owner greet each other and she asks to help you*, is interactively simple with [+ few participants, + few contributions needed], but mild interactional demands are made with [- one-way flow].

Subtask (b) *You want to buy something to eat, but you have little money. You ask the prices of some of the things for sale that you like in order to choose what you can buy*, is much more complex in the interactive dimension. The interactive complexity is tempered by [+ open

solution, + convergent solution, + few participants], but considerable demands are made by [- one-way flow, - few contributions needed, - negotiation not needed].

Subtask (c) *You describe the type, colour and place where the things are that you want. The shop owner then gives you what you ask for*, is primarily [+ one-way flow], but the interactive complexity is high with [- open solution, - few contributions needed, - negotiations not needed].

Subtask (d) *You then pay for your eats, but you do not have enough money and have to return something*, is interactively simple with [+ open solution, + convergent solution, + few participants, + few contributions needed], but some interactional demands are made by [- one-way flow, - negotiation not needed].

Subtask (e) *When you leave the shop, you join your friends*, make very little interactional demands with only [- one-way flow].

In summary, the behaviour-descriptive analysis of the different subcomponents of target task 1 indicates that the interactive complexity is low in subtasks (a) and (e), moderate in subtask (d), and high in subtasks (b) and (c).

6.2.3 Target task 1 cognitive complexity analysis

In this section, an information-theoretic analysis is done to determine the task complexity by identifying the resource-directing and resource-dispersing variables that make cognitive demands, in the different subcomponents of target task 1 (Robinson. 2010).

In subtask (a) and (e) there are minimal cognitive complexity evident in the task description specifications, with only some basic intentional reasoning expressed in terms of social conventionalities. Subtask (b) is more complex as the resource directing variable [- few elements] complicates the decision-making process that relies on conceptual demands made by [+ intentional reasoning]. In the performative dimension the task procedure is complicated by the variable [- single task], because the learner has to ask prices and calculate what she can afford with the money at her disposal. In subtask (c) the resource-directing variables [- few elements, + intentional reasoning] are still affecting the task complexity. There are also further demands made by [+ spatial reasoning]. However, one could argue that the interactant had some idea of what was sold at the shop and what she wanted to buy, and, thereby, simplifying the task in the performative dimension [+ planning time, + prior knowledge]. In subtask (d) the task participant has to reconsider her purchase, the prices and her money in order to match the

amount of money available to her with the total price of the purchase [- independency of steps, + intentional reasoning].

This task follows a distinct pattern of development with a clearly defined outcome: the purchase of lunch at a shop. The introduction subtask (a) and final subtask (e) are cognitively separated from the main task's particular non-linguistic goal. The cognitive demands increase in subtask (b) with [- few elements, + intentional reasoning, - single task], and increase further in subtask (c) with [+ spatial reasoning]. However, procedural design features [+ prior knowledge, + planning time] moderate task complexity.

6.2.4 Target task 1 linguistic complexity analysis

In this section, the grammatical, lexical and syntactic structures for each subtask in the corresponding lines of the simulated dialogue of target task 1 are analysed (see section 6.2.1). The linguistic complexity analysis of the target task has three facets. Firstly, the conceptual demands and resource-directing variables, which were identified in the cognitive complexity analysis above, are illustrated with reference to the use of specific forms. This is done in accordance with Robinson's proposal of a conceptual-linguistic interface, which supports the Cognition Hypothesis calling for specific complexity measures (Robinson, Cardierno and Shirai, 2009). Secondly, the syntactic analysis measures levels of linguistic complexity in accordance with Forster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth's (2000) Analysis of Speech unit. The use of coordination, subordination and phrasal elaboration are viewed as measures of complexity (Norris and Ortega, 2009). Finally, the lexical productivity is illustrated with a count of the different words per lexical category. (See section 6.1 for a more detailed explanation of the complexity measures applied in the linguistic analysis of this study.)

The situation illustrated by the simulated dialogue of target task 1 (see appendix 1) presents typical transactional language commonly associated with selecting and paying for goods. An analysis of the grammatical, syntactic and lexical structures identifies the language forms that afford conceptualization of this transactional interaction, supporting the above cognitive complexity analysis (section 6.2.3).

In subtasks (a) and (e), the sentences are monoclausal and rich in formulaic language. The shop owner offers assistance: **Ndingakunceda ngantoni?** (line 20) with a monoclausal question sentence in the indicative mood. The potential morpheme **nga** and the prepositional noun phrase with **nga** conceptualize the intentional reasoning. In the closing subtask, the task participant is met by her interlocutor's envy that conceptualizes [+ intentional reasoning,

+causal reasoning] through the applicative **-el-** and the causative **-is-**, respectively, in this monoclausal sentence in the indicative mood: **Sundirhalelisa, tshomi!** (line 76) Both these subtasks are brief, and the lexical complexity analyses indicate very limited productivity: subtask (a) has nouns (2), a verb (1) and an adverb (1), and subtask (e) has nouns (3) and verbs (2).

In subtask (b) the task participant describes the items she wants, and enquires after the price [- few elements]. This affords the use of descriptive compound nouns and adjectives or relatives, in nominal phrasal elaborations: **Yimalini ipakethi yeGo Slow enkulu, mama?** (line 22) The noun class 9 copulative is used with the noun and the interrogative **-ni**, in this monosyllabic question in the indicative mood. It is followed by the inverted subject, which is a noun phrase consisting of the noun and possessive descriptive noun, as well as the descriptive, non-predicative adjective.

In line 58, the verb **cela** incorporates the applicative **-el-**, denoting intentional reasoning, but is used as a standard expression for a very polite request: **Ndicela iiswiti ezimbini.** In this monoclausal sentence in the indicative mood, the present tense verb is followed by the plural class 10 noun that is modified by the non-predicatively used numeral, descriptive adjective. The hortative **ma-** also indicates intentional reasoning in the following monoclausal sentence: **Hayi, mandithathe iGo Slow, enkosi mama.** (line 38)

The rapid dialogic interaction between the interactants results in mainly simple, monoclausal syntactic structures. However, intentional reasoning affords syntactic complexity in the following complex sentence: **Kulungile, mama, ndiyithenge leyo.** (line 46) The first clause is the noun class 15 subject concord **ku-** used with the perfect tense verb in the indicative mood, denoting a state. In the second clause the object concord and demonstrative is used without the head. The determiner is the second position class 9 demonstrative, indicating distance from the speaker, and is the long form **-yo** used in the absence of the noun. It is in the subjunctive mood, denoting objective or intention. The lexical complexity consists of nouns (13), verbs (6), adjectives (6) and an adverb (1).

In subtask (c) the task participant continues to identify items, but she extends her descriptions [- few elements], and also identifies its location [+ spatial reasoning]:

Ufuna iSteak nekidney okanye isosejiroli? (line 35) The present tense indicative verb is followed by coordinated object noun phrases, while the quantifier **okanye** acts as a conjunction between the alternatives.

Xolo mama, ndicela uhlobo lwetumato. (line 42) The descriptive possessive noun act as nominal modifier in the object noun phrase.

Ezaa switi zipinki, zisecaleni kwaloo magungqu manyama. (line 50) The interactant first describes the colour of the sweets with the nominal relative. She uses the determiner to describe primarily location, namely the second position indicating a location near the hearer. The demonstrative also has the feature of definiteness, which causes the noun to drop its initial vowel and the relative to appear without the definite **a**. The second coordinated relative is the locative noun that is followed by the locative possessive preposition **kwa**, indicating the position in relation to another item, which is expressed in the noun phrase with demonstrative, noun and relative.

Subtask (c) presents nouns (8), verbs (2), adjectives (2) and an adverb.

In subtask (d) the decision-making process, which incorporates intentional reasoning and dependency of steps, is expressed in a complex sentence with two clauses: **Xolo mama, mandiyiyeke istokswiti, ndithathe enye iswiti.** (line 70) The first clause expresses intentional reasoning in the hortative mood with **ma-** and the first person singular subject concord **ndi**. The use of the object concord with the object noun phrase denotes emphasis. The second clause is in the subjunctive mood, presenting a consecutive action and objective or intention. The quantifier **nye** appears before the head meaning *another*. The lexical complexity analysis presents nouns (5), verbs (3) and adjectives (2).

In summary, the sentences in the dialogue are mostly compositionally monosyllabic and formulaic due to the dialogic interaction and the school tuck shop context, which is by nature pressured for time and service, and, therefore, not conducive to longer speech turns. However, these conditions necessitate effective conceptualizations of theme and intentional reasoning, with greater use of deictic expressions and nominal modifiers, while there are also task complexity factors within the performative dimension [- single task].

6.2.5 Pedagogic task versions of target task 1

In this section pedagogic task versions are presented on a cline of cognitive complexity in terms of Robinson's SSARC model. Pedagogic task design and complexity modifications are informed by the interactive and cognitive complexity analyses (see sections 6.2.2 and 6.2.3). Subtasks (a) and (e) fall outside the scope of the following two information-gap tasks due to

the nature of the non-linguistic task outcome (*buying lunch from the school's tuck shop*), and are dealt with separately in section 7.3.2.2 analyzing formulaic language learning.

In subtasks (b) and (d), the information flow is bidirectional with both interactants requesting and giving information. The open, convergent task outcome is to select and acquire food with a limited amount of money. This involves multiple tasks, including selecting and pricing the desired items [- single task]. The task is complicated by the situational pressure for time, the number of items to choose from, limited spending money, as well as expressing intention [- planning time, -few elements, + intentional reasoning]. The diagram below describes the five pedagogic task versions in terms of Robinson's SSARC model:

A two-way information-gap task: Buying lunch from the tuck shop

Dimensions of Complexity	Simple 1	2	3	4	Complex 5
Planning time	+	-	-	-	-
Few elements	+	+	-	-	-
Independency of steps	+	+	+	-	-
Intentional reasoning	-	-	-	-	+

The first pedagogic task version is simple and stable (SS) for all cognitive variables. With the second version, learners are pressured to identify an item for purchase [- planning time], affording automatization of existing knowledge (A). During the third version more, similar elements are introduced, and learners' knowledge is restructured (R) as they need to conceptualize accurate, specific descriptions of the items. The fourth task version introduces prices to the items and the interactants have to calculate the total cost of all items, ensuring that it matches their amount of spending money [- independency of steps], dispersing their resources to afford automatization. The final fifth task version introduces maximum complexity (C) when they conceptualize their intentional purchase [+ intentional reasoning].

Subtask (c) is a one-way information-gap task with a closed, convergent task outcome of identifying items in a shop. The information-giver describes the items she wants and the information-requester must identify these particular items amongst numerous other, similar items [- few elements], describing the type (size), colour (flavour) and given position [+ spatial reasoning]. Procedural demands are introduced when the task participants are pressured for

time [- planning time] and unfamiliar with the shop and the items for sale [- prior knowledge]. The following diagram presents five pedagogic task versions with increasing cognitive complexity through modifications to the task design in terms of Robinson's SSARC model (2010).

A one-way information-gap task: Describing the food you want

Dimensions of Complexity	Simple 1	2	3	4	Complex 5
Planning time	+	-	-	-	-
Few elements	+	+	-	-	-
Prior knowledge	+	+	+	-	-
Spatial reasoning	-	-	-	-	+

The first task version is simple and stable in terms of learners existing language knowledge (SS). The information-giver calls out the items from a list and the information-requester allocates the items. (A diagram of a shop with different items are provided.) The second version presents a different list of items, and task participants have limited time to complete the task [- planning time], affording automatization of existing language knowledge (A). The third task version presents more similar elements in the shop [- few elements], requiring the task participants to restructure existing language knowledge (R) by conceptualizing specific differences, such as type or colour, to identify and match the precise items on the list. The fourth task version introduces a resource-dispersing variable, when task participants identify unfamiliar items in a new shop or unfamiliar setting [- prior knowledge]. The final task version affords further language development with complex reasoning (C). In this task version there are similar items in different positions in the shop, requiring the information-giver to describe the item and its position [+ spatial reasoning].

Summarizing this section, the familiar situation of buying lunch at school is described as a target task for young beginner learners, with task description specifications identifying five subtasks that represent subcomponents and skills necessary for target task efficacy. Task complexity was analyzed describing the interactional, conceptual and procedural demands, as well as the linguistic complexity in a simulated dialogue for the target task. Modifications to the pedagogic task design, affording L2 development, are described in terms of Robinson's SSARC model (2010).

6.3 TARGET TASK 2: MEETING AND INTRODUCING A NEW LEARNER

The two main topics that target task 2 represents are sharing personal information and providing directions. These two topics are also represented in target task 3. Target task 2 and 3 are very similar in terms of interactive and cognitive factors. However, target task 3 (*the playground task*) has greater complexity in the conceptual dimension with the variable [+ intentional reasoning] in subtasks (a), (b) and (d), and in the performative dimension with the variables [- single task, - task structure] in subtasks (c) and (d). (See appendix 3 for target task 3's description specifications and the complete simulated dialogue. In section 6.9 the task complexity summary for target task 3 is provided.) The range in complexity that these task topics afford is great and can be adjusted for use with very beginner learners, or for use with much more advanced learners. With young learners spatial reasoning without visual support [- here-and-now] may present negative language affordances for giving directions. (See section 8.3.2 for implications for further study.)

6.3.1 Target task 2 description specifications:

(a) Wena nomhlobo wakho niyabizwa ngutitshalakazi. Nakufika eofisini, niyabulisana notitshalakazi, nibuzwe impilo. (b) Utitshalakazi ucela ukuba nimnkele umfundi omtsha, nize nimbonise isikolo, nimchazele yonke into nemithetho yokuziphatha yasesikolweni neyaseklasini yakhe entsha. Niyavuma ukuyenza loo. (c) Niyamkhapha ukuba nihambahamba isikolo. Kuqala niyambulisa, nize nimbuze igama lakhe, igama lesikolo sakhe esidala, nezinto azithandayo. (d) Nimchazela imidlalo eminye nemisebenzi yesikolo senu. Nimxelela iindawo edlalwa kuzo, amaxesha yenzwa ngawo, nootitshala abayiphathayo. Umfundi omtsha uphawula ukuba yeyiphi imibutho angazibandakanya kuyo. (e) Nimalathisa ivenkilana yesikolo nendlela eya emagumbini angasese. (f) Nimbonisa iklasi yakhe nezinto ezikhoyo phakathi kwayo kwaye nimchazela iindawo enihlala kuzo eklasini neepowusta zenu ezijongeka, ezixhonywa eludongweni.

(a) You and a friend are called by a teacher to the office. When you arrive you greet the teacher politely and she asks after your health. (b) The teacher asks you and your friend to welcome a new learner and to show her the school and explain everything about her new school and classroom, as well as informing her about some of the school sports and activities. You agree to that. (c) You accompany her as you walk about the school. First you greet her and ask her name, the name of her old school and her interests. (d) You describe some of the school sports and activities, the times when and where they take place and the teachers who are in charge.

The new student choose the activities that she can partake in. (e) You direct her to the tuck shop and the toilettes. (f) You show her the classroom and some of the things inside your class. You describe where you sit in class and your posters that are exhibited on the classroom's wall.

Subtasks	Task description specifications	Corresponding lines in target task simulation
(a)	Wena nomhlobo wakho niyabizwa ngutitshalakazi. Nakufika eofisini, niyabulisana notitshalakazi, nibuzwe impilo. <i>You and a friend are called by a teacher to the office. When you arrive you greet the teacher politely and she asks after your health.</i>	Lines 18-25
(b)	Utitshalakazi ucela ukuba nimnkele umfundi omtsha, nize nimbonise isikolo, nimchazele yonke into nemithetho yokuziphatha yasesikolweni neyaseklasini yakhe entsha. Niyavuma ukuyenza loo. <i>The teacher asks you and your friend to welcome a new learner and to show her the school and explain everything about her new school and classroom, as well as informing her about some of the school sports and activities. You agree to that.</i>	Lines 26-37
(c)	Niyamkhapha nihambahamba isikolo. Kuqala niyambulisa, nize nimbuze igama lakhe. Niyamnkela kwaye niyaziswa. Nibuza igama lesikolo sakhe esidala, nezinto azithandayo. <i>You accompany her as you walk about the school. First you greet her and ask her name. You welcome her and introduce yourselves. You ask the name of her old school and her interests.</i>	Lines 38-54
(d)	Nimchazela imidlalo eminye nemisebenzi yesikolo senu. Nimxelela iindawo idlalwa kuzo, amaxesha yenzwa ngawo, nootitshala abayiphathayo. Yena uphawula ukuba yeyiphi imibutho angazibandakanya kuyo. <i>You describe some of the school sports and activities, the times when and where they take place and the teachers who are in charge. The new student choose the activities that she can partake in.</i>	Lines 55-74
(e)	Nimalathisa ivenkilana yesikolo nendlela eya emagumbini angasese. <i>You direct her to the tuck shop and the toilettes.</i>	Lines 74-85
(f)	Nimbonisa iklassi yakhe nezinto ezikhoyo phakathi kwayo nize nimchazele iindawo enihala kuzo eklasini neepowusta zenu ezijongeka, ezixhonywa eludongweni. <i>You show her the classroom and some of the things inside your class. You describe where you sit in class and your posters that are exhibited on the classroom's wall.</i>	Lines 92-128

6.3.2 Target task 2 interactive complexity analysis

This section presents an analysis of the interactive complexity in the task description specifications of target task 2. For this target task, one of the interactant variables [+/- equal status and role] should also be considered.

During subtask (a) *You and a friend are called by a teacher to the office. When you arrive you greet the teacher politely and she asks after your health*, the task description specifications indicate [- equal status and role] as the interaction takes place between the teacher and learners. The participation variables are [- open solution, + one way flow, + convergent solution, + few participants, + few contributions needed, + negotiation not needed]. With the exception of the difference in status and role, this component of the task description specifications presents low interactional complexity. During subtask (b) *The teacher asks you and your friend to welcome a new learner and to show her the school and explain everything about her new school and classroom, as well as informing her about some of the school sports and activities. You agree to that*, similar interactant and interactional demands to subtask (a) are specified by the task description specifications in this subtask, and the interaction remains mainly [+ one-way flow] as the learners receive their instructions, and, therefore, this component exhibits very little interactional complexity.

During the rest of the target task the interactant variable remains [+ equal status and roles]. Subtask (c) *You accompany her as you walk about the school. First you greet her and ask her name, the name of her old school and her interests*, presents the participation variables [+ open solution, + one-way flow, + convergent solution, + few participants, - few contributions needed, + negotiation not needed]. According to the task description specification, subtask (c) requires low interactional complexity on all parameters, except for the number of contributions needed. During subtask (d) *You describe some of the school sports and activities, the times when and where they take place and the teachers who are in charge. The new student choose the activities that she can partake in*, more interactional demands are made by [- one-way flow, - open solution, - few contributions needed] and the interactional complexity increases.

During subtasks (e) *You direct her to the tuck shop and the toilettes* and (f) *You show her the classroom and some of the things inside your class. You describe where you sit in class and your posters that are exhibited on the wall*, the interactional demands increase with [- open solution, - few contributions needed, - negotiation not needed]. Despite the participation

variables [+ one-way flow, + convergent solutions, + few participants], the interactional complexity can be considered high.

Summarizing this section, the interactive complexity of subtasks (a) and (b) are low for the learner task participants. In subtask (c) and (d) the task descriptive specifications indicate an increase in the interactive complexity. In subtasks (e) and (f) the interactive complexity is high.

6.3.3 Target task 2 cognitive complexity analysis

In this section the cognitive complexity for the target task is investigated within the task description specifications. (See appendix 2 for a complete transcript of the task description specifications and target task dialogue.) Robinson's cognitive demands are used and described in terms of resource-directing and resource-dispersing variables (2010: 250).

During subtasks (a) and (b) there are very limited cognitive demands made on the language learners. The performative demands are low, as apart from the greeting routine in (a), the teacher provides instructions to the learners in (b), affording [+ task structure] for the subsequent subtasks. Although there are a number of instructions [- few steps], the learners are familiar with the topic [+ prior knowledge], and the instructions exhibit [+ independency of steps]. As the learners are only required to listen to the instructions, subtask (b) represents [+ single task]. The conceptual demands are low with [+ here-and-now, + few elements, - reasoning, - perspective-taking].

During subtasks (c) and (d) the cognitive demands increase. Performative demands are made by the resource-dispersing variables [- planning time, - single task]. In subtask (c), conceptual demands are made with reference to the new learner's previous school [- here-and-now] and enquiries into the new learner's interests [+ perspective-taking]. In subtask (d), the interaction regards different activities and teachers [- few elements] with references to times and places [+ spatial reasoning]. When these activities pertain to the new learner's interests, this subtask also affords [+ intentional reasoning, + causal reasoning] in the conceptual dimension.

In the final two subtasks the cognitive complexity increases specifically along the resource-directing variable [+ spatial reasoning]. In subtask (e) there is reference to direction and motion, while in subtask (f) the cognitive demands increase with [- few elements]. In both cases the performative demands also increase with [- few steps, - independency of steps]. Subtask (f)'s interaction regarding class discipline and the physical qualities of the classroom further affords reasoning and perspective-taking. The greater cognitive and performative demands afforded

by these resource-dispersing and resource-directing variables constitute a high degree of cognitive complexity for subtasks (e) and (f).

In summary, the performative and developmental demands are low during subtasks (a) and (b). In subtasks (c) and (d) the performative demands and developmental demands increase. In subtasks (e) and (f) the cognitive complexity is high with a further increase in performative and developmental demands.

6.3.4 Target task 2 linguistic complexity analysis

In this section the grammatical, lexical and syntactic structures in the simulated dialogue of target task 2 are analyzed. The linguistic complexity analysis may also inform specific pedagogical activities, including focus on form, formulaic language teaching and communicative strategies (see section 7.3.2.1).

In subtask (a) and (b) the learners' utterances consist of mono-clausal sentences. In subtask (b), the teacher gives a number instructions [- few steps] and the learners have to listen [+ single task]. The teacher expresses intentional reasoning, and refers to numerous elements. The teacher uses the plural form in the imperative mood with the object concord **m-xelel-e-ni**, followed by coordinate noun phrases with the preposition **na-**: **Mxeleleni imisebenzi yesikolo, namaxesha ayo, iindawo yenzwa kuzo, nootitshala abamfundisayo.** (lines 28-29) There is subordination with the verb **-cela**, indicating a polite request in the indicative mood complemented by the subjunctive mood, and consecutive actions also expressed in the subjunctive mood: **Ndicela nimamnkele kakuhle, nimbonise ikhosi yakhe, nimchazele yonke into ekufuneka eyazile.** (lines 27-28) These sentences are linguistically complex with multi-clauses, namely three clauses and four clauses in lines 28-29 and lines 27-28, respectively. Phrasal nominal modification occurs with possessive noun phrases, possessive pronouns and relative clauses. However, it occurs during the teacher's speech production and the learners may use top-down listening skills, while they are not required to reason, nor interact much. The lexical productivity includes receptive and productive knowledge: subtask (a) presents nouns (2), verbs (3), and adverbs (3), while subtask (b) has nouns (10), verbs (12), an adjective (1), and adverbs (7).

In subtask (c) the sentences remain mostly simple, with some references to the past tense [- here-and-now]: **Ndifunde kwaHudson Park.** (line 48) Intentional reasoning is evident in the use of the hortative mood with **ma-** denoting request: **Molo, sisi, masihambe.** (line 38) When the conceptual demands increase with [- here-and-now, + perspective-taking], the linguistic

complexity is high: **Ndithande ukudlala ihoki netenesi, nokuthatha inxaxheba kwikwayala, nedrama.** (lines 52-53) This multi-clause sentence consists of a past tense mental state verb in the indicative mood, with an infinitive verb subordinate clause, complemented by coordinated noun phrases, as well as a second coordinated infinitive verb clause, with the conjunct **na-** and its complement noun and coordinated noun phrases, with the locative preposition **ku-/kwi** and the conjunct **na-**. The lexical productivity includes: nouns (6), verbs (5) and adverbs (4). A comparison with target task 3(b), which presents similar task outcomes than target task 2(c), but greater conceptual demands [- few elements, + reasoning] for target task 3(b), results in much greater linguistic complexity in target task 3. (See appendix 3.) Furthermore, in the performative dimension target task 2(c) presents the resource-dispersing variable [- single task], when the learners enquire after the new learner's personal information while showing her the school, resulting in fewer contributions and less lexical productivity. (See section 6.9, table 6.1 for a complexity summary of these tasks.)

Throughout target task 2 there are a significant number of spatial references. In subtasks (a), (b) and (c) there is evidence of spatial reasoning in the locative demonstratives **apha** (line 18) and **phaya** (line 50), the locative copulative demonstrative **nanku** (line 26), the locative preposition **kwa-** used with the class 1 noun **kwaHudson** (line 48) and with the definite quantifier **kwesiphi** (line 45), and the locative affixes with nouns **e-** and **-ini** in **eofisini** (line 18). The noun is specified with the descriptive possessive **a** used with the locative affix **e-** in **owaseMonti** (line 26) and **sikolo saseMonti** (line 45). However, in subtask (d) the spatial reasoning increases in complexity from indicating position to giving directions. Indicating position in relation to reference points is considered cognitively and linguistically easier than giving direction, due to the cognitive and linguistic complexity of describing motion, manner and path (Cook, 2015, Robinson, Cardierno and Shirai, 2009), as well as the there-and-then variable that is generally implicated when giving directions. If the direction-giver accompanies the interlocutor en route, then the task would be less complex, as this entails the here-and-now variable. This distinction within the spatial reasoning dimension can be illustrated by analyzing the grammatical and syntactic complexity along with the developmental complexity in lines 56-58 [+ spatial reasoning describing position, - few elements, + here-and-now], and comparing it to the linguistic complexity analysis conceptualizing the developmental complexity in lines 60-61 [+ spatial reasoning describing motion and manner, - few elements, - here-and-now]:

Nangaya amabala emidlalo yonke. Amabala ehoki asecaleni kwamabala ebhola yomnatha. Amabala etenesi asemva kweholo yesikolo. (lines 56-58)

This segment consists of three monoclausal syntactic units. The plural class 6 noun prefix **ama** + **bala** is used, and the speaker distinguishes between different sport fields using a descriptive possessive **a** with the descriptive noun complement, e.g. **amabala a-itenesi** -> **amabala etenesi**. The noun phrase is elaborated with two descriptive nouns in **amabala ebhola yomnatha**. The copulative verb takes the locative class noun (**ecaleni, emva**) as a complement, followed by the possessive concord **kwa** that takes a descriptive possessive noun phrase complement.

Uza kugqitha kuyo, uze ubone ibala labantwana abancinci lebhola yomnatha. (lines 60-61)

The sentence in this segment is multi-clausal. It has an indicative main clause that is expressed in the future tense, followed by two subjunctive mood clauses. The deficiency verb **ze** is followed by a subjunctive complement clause and denotes successive commands. The motion verb **gqitha** is followed by the locative preposition **ku-**, which takes a pronoun as a complement. The noun phrase takes a descriptive noun and an adjective as nominal modifiers, as well as a second descriptive noun phrase with two descriptive possessives. The developmental complexity is increased by the resource-directing variable [- few elements]. The numerous sport fields afford the use of four phrasal nominal modifiers, including the descriptive noun **labantwana** and the descriptive adjective **abancinci**.

The preposition **nga-** is used to express times in coordinated noun phrases: **ngoMvulo nangoLwesithathu ngo2:30** (line 62) and **ngamaxesha ekhefu nangokuphuma kwesikolo** (lines 74-75).

Causal reasoning is expressed with the conjunction **ngoba** in a coordinated, complex sentence: **Ungafiki emva kwexesha, ngoba laa mama, yho, uyangxolisa!** The first of two clauses is the negative in the subjunctive mood, denoting a polite prohibition, and the second clause is introduced by the conjunction, followed by the demonstrative and the noun, emphasizing specificity, an exclamation of dread, and a long present tense verb in the indicative mood, denoting habitual behaviour.

There are also instances of intentional reasoning correlating with syntactic complexity:

Ukhona umbutho wedrama kwesi sikolo osenokuba ungaya kuwo. (lines 55-56) The main clause uses the existential copulative with the inverted subject, consisting of a noun and its possessive descriptive noun, which is followed by the locative noun phrase that has the locative

preposition with a demonstrative and the noun. The subordinate clause is the deficiency verb -**nokuba**, denoting possibility, expressed in the relative mood, followed by the indicative mood motion verb with the potential morpheme -**nga**-, emphasizing the meaning of possibility, and the locative preposition **ku**- used with the pronoun.

Xa ufuna ukuya eholweni, kufuneka uqale apha, uhambe nkqo, uze ubone ichibi lamanzi elincinci, nebhanki yokuhlala phantsi kwemithi. (lines 58-60) This sentence is high in syntactic complexity and consists of five clauses. The sentential preposition **xa** indicating a condition, is followed by the mental state verb -**funa** in the situative mood and its complement motion infinitive verb that is followed by the locative noun (two clauses), the concord **ku**- with the mental state verb -**fun**- and the neutron-passive suffix -**eka**, denoting necessity, are followed by three subjunctive mood clauses to express consecutive actions. There is also evidence of coordination and nominal phrasal elaboration in **nebhanki yokuhlala phantsi kwemithi**.

Ndingavuya ndizibandakanya nekwayara. (line 72) There are two clauses in this sentence expressing intentional reasoning. The main clause uses the first person singular subject concord **ndi**- with the mental state verb -**vuy**-, taking a situative complement in the subordinate clause, followed by the prepositional phrase with **na**-.

Subtask (d) has nouns (20), verbs (15), adjectives (2) and adverbs (14).

In subtask (e) the spatial reasoning gradually increases in complexity as the speaker initially accompanies the interlocutor [+ here-and-now], and uses locative copulative demonstratives to point out locations. The first position locative copulative demonstrative **nantsi** (line 74) indicates a position near the speaker and listener, and the third position locative copulative demonstrative **nangaya** (line 75) indicates a position far from the speaker and listener. In lines 78-85 a section of dialogue follows that includes spatial reasoning with reference to motion and manner [+ spatial reasoning]. Subordination expresses the consecutive instructions in line 80. It is also necessary to distinguish between a number of similar elements [- few elements] with the descriptive possessive class 15 noun in the adverbial phrase with the locative affix **ku**-: **kumnyango wokugqibela**. Comprehension checks are used due to the more complex performative variables [- few steps, - independency of steps]. Subtask (e) has nouns (7), verbs (5), an adjective (1) and adverbs (6).

In subtask (f) the resource-directing variables [- few elements, + spatial reasoning] increase the conceptual and linguistic complexity: **lipowusta ezininzi ozibonayo zenziwe ngabantwana.** (line 107) The plural class 10 noun prefix is in agreement with its nominal modifiers in the

phrase, i.e. the adjective **ezininzi** and verbal relative **ozibonayo**. The verbal relative forms the subordinate clause, and the main clause is in the past tense passive voice with the copulative preposition **nga-** used with the noun, indicating the role of agent. The sentence consists of two clauses and is considered linguistically complex.

In lines 113-128, increasing the number of elements affords maximized cognitive complexity along with spatial reasoning. A linguistic analysis comparing lines 107-112 [+ spatial reasoning, + few elements] with lines 113-128 [+ spatial reasoning, - few elements] illustrates the cognitive-linguistic interface that manifests in developmental complexity:

L: **Jonga nantsiya ipowusta yam yongcoliseko.** (1 clause) **Yileyo powusta ebomvu ephezulu kweshelfu yeencwadi ngasekoneni.** (2 clauses)

H: **Hayi, tshomi, intle laa powusta yakho.** (1 clause)

The interactant (L) has only one poster to point out, using the locative copulative demonstrative in the third position **nantsiya**, denoting distance from the speaker and listener. She uses the first person possessive pronoun **yam**, the descriptive noun **yongcoliseko** in one noun phrase, and the nominal relative **ebomvu**, along with the locative phrase **ephezulu kweeshelfu**, which takes a possessive descriptive noun complement **yeencwadi**, and a prepositional locative phrase **ngasekoneni** in another complex nominal phrase. The interactant (H) uses the copulative with an adjectival complement **intle**, and the demonstrative in the third position with the noun **laa powusta** with the second person possessive pronoun **yakho**.

Z: **Zimbini ezam iipowusta ezixhonywa eludongweni.** (2 clauses) **Uyayibona iwatshi yeklasi yethu leya phezu kwebhodi emhlophe phambili eklasini?** (3 clauses)

H: **Ewe.**

Z: **Yebo. Ecaleni lasekunene kwayo, kukho ipowusta ebhlowu.** (2 clauses) **Yebo? Enye yeepowusta zam isecaleni kwaloo.** (1 clause) **Yipowusta emhlophe eyokutya okuphilileyo.** (2 clauses) **Enye yezam isecaleni kwefestile yesibini yangasemva kweklasi.** (1 clause) **Leya imnyama nebomvu.** (1 clause) **Yipowusta yam yongcoliseko.** (1 clause) **Uyazibona?** (1 clause)

H: **Ndizibone zombini. Zintle nazo.**

The interactant (Z) gives emphasis to the number of her posters that are on display by inverting the subject and starting the sentence with the copulative verb that takes a quantitative adjectival

complement **zimbini**, followed by the first person emphatic possessive pronoun **ezam**. The inverted noun phrase takes a passive verbal relative, with a locative noun phrase complement, as a nominal modifier. The greater number of elements (objects and posters) in the classroom affords more interaction, and the interactant exerts greater effort conceptualizing and directing the interlocutor (H) in order to identify her posters. This is in line with the predictions of the Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2011a). Michel, Kuiken and Vedder (2007) assert that interactivity affords greater attention to form and more accuracy. In this segment of the target task (lines 114-129), the interactant (Z) produces seven spatial references, including six locative class nouns with a locative noun phrase or the possessive concord taking a noun or pronoun as complement (**phezu kwebhodi**, **phambili eklasini**, **ecaleni lasekunene kwaloo**, **isecaleni kwaloo**, **isecaleni kwefestile**, **yangasemva kweklasi**). She produces a greater number of phrasal nominal modifiers, including four nominal relatives (**emhlophe**, **ebhlowu**, **imnyama nebomvu**), two verbal relatives (**ezixhonywa**, **okuphilileyo**) and descriptive nouns (**yeklasi**, **yeepowusta**, **yongcoliseko**), as well as a relative clause that takes a nominal infinitive descriptive noun as a complement (**eyokutya**). In the performative dimension the increased number of steps needed to obtain the interactive goal [- few steps] is greater, and [- independency of steps] necessitates more comprehension checks.

In lines 86 and 92, the use of the morpheme **ma** in the hortative mood indicates intentional reasoning. The linguistic analysis of the following segments from subtask (f) illustrates the complexity of cognitive reasoning manifested in a single syntactic unit:

Masikrobe ngefestile, ngoba apha kwesi sikolo asikwazi ukungena xa engekho utitshala eklasini. (lines 92-93) The first clause is in the hortative mood complemented with a prepositional phrase **nga-** denoting intentional reasoning. The coordinated second clause is introduced by the conjunction **ngoba** indicating causal reasoning, and takes a third complement clause introduced by the sentential preposition **xa**.

Kodwa zikhona iidesika ezimbini eziphambili kweklasi ezigcinelwa abafundi xa bephazamise abanye kwaye akukho mntu uhlala edesikeni ecaleni kwam. (lines 98-102) This complex sentence consists of 5 clauses. The sentence is introduced by the existential morpheme **ku** with the quantifier **odwa**, denoting conditions of exclusion, and indicating perspective-taking, along with spatial reasoning expressed in the nominal locative relative **eziphambili** and its possessive concord **kwa-** with the nominal complement **iklasi**, while the passive verbal relative with the applicative **-el-** indicates intentional reasoning, the sentential

preposition **xa** introduces a situative clause indicating causal reasoning, and finally the conjunction **kwaye** introduces a coordinated indicative clause that presents perspective-taking on position.

Ndiyayithanda ngakumbi ngoba inemifanekiso enamabalabala neepowusta ezininzi eludongweni. (lines 103-104) This complex sentence consists of three clauses. Fondness is expressed through the mental state verb **thanda**, denoting perspective-taking, and the long present tense verb form in the indicative mood, along with the prepositional phrase **nga-** with the quantifier **mbi** providing emphasis. The conjunction **ngoba** denotes causal reasoning, and the copulative verb with the preposition **na-** establishing an associative relation with the complement **imifanekiso**, which has a nominal associative copulative relative and a coordinated noun phrase with a descriptive adjective and locative noun phrase.

Subtask (f)'s linguistic complexity is also reflected by the lexical productivity: nouns (14), verbs (12), adjectives (12) and adverbs (10).

In this section a clear correlation between cognitive and linguistic complexity was illustrated with reference to specific language forms and syntactic complexity. The lexical complexity analysis indicates the need to use adverbs during spatial references and adjectives differentiating between numerous elements. The linguistic complexity of the learners' utterances is low in subtasks (a) and (b), fair but more complex in subtask (c), and high in subtasks (d) and (e).

6.3.5 Pedagogic task versions of target task 2

In this section pedagogic tasks are identified based on target task 2's interactive complexity analysis in section 6.3.2. Modifications to the task design features in terms of Robinson's SSARC model for the grading and sequencing of tasks from least to most complex task design are done with reference to the interactive and cognitive complexity analyses of target task 2.

Subtasks (a) and (c) present a one-way information-gap task, with one task participant supplying the information and the other participant(s) requesting information. In both subtasks the task topic revolves around greeting and introduction. In subtask (a) the participant variable [- equal status and role] present an additional interactant demand as compared to subtask (c) [+ equal status and role], however subtask (a) remains less complex with [+ familiar, + few contributions]. The cognitive complexity increases with [- planning time, - few steps] from subtask (a) to (c), but can be regulated with [+ structure provided], presented in subtask (b).

Modifications to the interactive factors of subtasks (a) and (c) allow for a two-way information-gap task with an open, divergent solution to the task goal of meeting and introducing a person. Further modifications are made to the task design features that gradually introduces greater cognitive complexity along the conceptual dimension may include [- few elements, - here-and-now], as is found in the task description specifications of target task 3(b): *You introduce a new learner at your school to your group. You tell them her name and surname, where she came from and her grade.* In the diagram below this pedagogic task is staged on a cline from simple to complex with five pedagogic versions in accordance with Robinson's (2010) SSARC model:

A two-way information-gap task: a greet and meet task

Dimensions of Complexity	Simple 1	2	3	4	Complex 5
Planning time	+	-	-	-	-
Few elements	+	+	-	-	-
Structure provided	+	+	+	-	-
Here-and-now	+	+	+	+	-

In the first four pedagogic task versions the interactants greet and introduce themselves, and ask and share personal information [+ two-way, - convergent solution]. The simplest version is simple and stable on all dimensions performed. With the second version there is no planning time. With the third version the interactants are expected to introduce themselves asking and providing more personal information, but a structure is provided specifying the required information [- few elements, + structure provided]. With the third version, there is no structure provided, affording automatization of knowledge structures. The final version introduces maximum complexity when the interactants are asked to request information from their first interlocutor, and then to recall the first interlocutor's personal information, supplying this information to a different interlocutor [- here-and-now], introducing a third person. (This variable is explored further in the simulation dialogue of target task 3.)

Subtask (d)'s task description specifications present a one-way information-gap task and a decision-making task with an open, convergent solution to the task outcome of supplying information about the school's extracurricular programme, allowing the interlocutor to choose suitable activities to take part in. References to time and place [+ spatial reasoning] make particular conceptual demands, but the complexity can be moderated with the number of

activities included [+/- few elements]. In the following diagram a decision-making pedagogic task is staged on a cline from simple to complex with five pedagogic versions in accordance with Robinson's (2010) SSARC model. The resource-directing variables [+ intentional reasoning, + perspective-taking] are introduced to make complex conceptual demands. A number of researchers have argued the more complex nature of decision-making tasks affording the use of more abstract nouns and complex conceptualizations (Bitchener, 2010, Geng and Ferguson, 2013, Gilabert, Barón and Levkina, 2011).

A decision-making task: The extra-curricular school programme

Dimensions of Complexity	Simple 1	2	3	4	Complex 5
Single task	+	-	-	-	-
Intentional reasoning	-	-	+	+	+
Prior knowledge	+	+	+	-	-
Perspective-taking	-	-	-	-	+

Task participants can work individually, in pairs or groups. Gilabert, Barón and Levkina (2011) maintain that monologue mode affords greater lexical and structural complexity and accuracy than dialogue mode. The task participants investigate the input, make decisions and report back to the group or class. The school's extra-curricular programme time table is provided, describing extra-mural activities, starting times, venues, special requirements and the name of the teacher-in-charge. The task participants are required to investigate, compare and infer meaning [- single task] from the time table. For the simplest version of this task, the task participants are only required to identify the activities that they want to participate in. In the second version, they must compare the time slots and venues of their chosen activities and only choose two activities, ensuring that the times don't clash and that they fulfil all the specified requirement, including age, previous experience and equipment needed [- single task]. In the third version, they report back to the class or group, informing them about their choice of activities [+ intentional reasoning]. The fourth version presents a different school's time-table and includes new choices of extra-mural activities [- prior knowledge]. The final version of the task is a reasoning-gap task where the task participants compare the two different schools' extra-curricular programmes, synthesize information, make inferences and deduct facts [+

perspective-taking]. They report back to the group or class, expressing their preferences and supporting their choices.

In subtask (e) and (f) conceptual demands are made by [+ spatial reasoning]. The participation variables [+ one-way flow, + convergent solution, - open solution] indicate an information-gap task. In subtask (e), the interactants are required to describe direction and motion, indicating a direction-giving task type as proposed in the diagram below describing a school map task staged on a cline from simple to complex with five pedagogic versions in accordance with Robinson's (2010) SSARC model.

A direction-giving task: School map task

Dimensions of Complexity	Simple 1	2	3	4	Complex 5
Few steps	+	-	-	-	-
Few elements	+	+	-	-	-
Prior knowledge	+	+	+	-	-
Here-and-now	+	+	+	+	-

The closed, convergent task outcome is giving effective directions, resulting in the interlocutor arriving at a specified destination. During the first version of the map task the learner accompanies the interactant on a short route [+ few steps]. The second version requires a longer route presenting more parts of the school [- few steps]. The third version's map has more points of reference that has to be described and distinguished from other similar points. The fourth version presents an unfamiliar map or location [- prior knowledge]. The final version requires the learners to describe a route in consecutive actions, without being able to accompany their interactants [- here-and-now]. Spatial reasoning, removed in space and time, may be very challenging for young learners, and learners' cognitive development has to be determined with reference to their L1 linguistic ability, identifying appropriate cognitive complexity for affording L2 development.

In this section, pedagogic task versions were represented in terms of Robinson's SSARC model. The task description specifications, interactive complexity and cognitive complexity analysis of the target task were regarded, while modifications to task design features were considered for the grading and sequencing of tasks. The interactive demands of the target task are predominantly suitable for information-gap tasks. Along the developmental dimensions, the resource-directing variables [- few elements, + spatial reasoning] are significant throughout the

target task. The cognitive complexity and linguistic complexity of the subtasks indicate the high complexity of subtask (d), motivating the complex decision-making pedagogic task versions. Pedagogic task versions illustrating an increase in task complexity were presented on a cline that gradually increases the cognitive complexity along performative and developmental dimensions.

6.4 TARGET TASK 4: A NEW CELLPHONE FOR MY BIRTHDAY

The current and social nature of this task topic is similar to that of target task 5 (*the music we love*), creating important language affordances with the interest that it generates amongst younger learners. (See sections 2.2.4.2 and 5.5.3 for discussions regarding motivation and willingness to participate in task-based teaching and syllabus design for young learners.) Target task 4 and 5 are comparable in terms of interactive and cognitive factors, as they afford opinion-gap tasks, and demand perspective-taking. Both task 4 and 5 have components that require one-way information flow: target task 4 affords a narrative task type, and target task 5 affords an instruction-giving task type. These pedagogic task types are motivated and described in section 6.4.5. (See appendix 5 for target task 5's description specifications and the complete simulated dialogue. In section 6.9 the interactive, cognitive and linguistic complexity summary for target task 5 is provided.)

6.4.1 Target task 4 description specifications

In this section, the task description specifications, subtasks and corresponding lines of the simulated dialogue for target task 4 are presented. (See appendix 4 for the target task description specifications and the complete simulated dialogue.)

Ngumhla wakho wokuzalwa. (a) Itshomi yakho ikunqwenelela imini entle. Nabanye abahlobo bakho xa besiva le ndaba imnandi, babeka iminqweno emihle kuwe. (b) Ubaxelela ngetheko lakho lokuyivuyiselana nefemeli imini yakho yokuzalwa. (c) Itshomi yakho ibuza ukuba ifowuni yakho uyifumane phi. Umxelela ukuba uyiphiwe nguyihlo iselula sisipho sangemini yakho yokuzalwa. Abahlobo bakho bayibuka iselulafowuni yakho bekuncoma kungenxa yethamsanqa lakho. Omnye uphethe eyakhe, kodwa abanye abangenazo. Bona abanqwenela iselula, bachaza izizathu zokungakayifumani namacebo abo okuyifumana. (d) Niyathelekisa iiselula zenu nezakokwabo neempawu ezininzi zazo ezibanga umdla kwaye nithetha ngezona selula zintle zithandwa nina. (e) Wena netshomi yakho nixelelana iinombolo zenu zeeseifowuni.

Today is your birthday. (a) Your friend wishes you a happy birthday. Your other friends also congratulate you when they hear that it's your birthday. (b) You tell them about your plans to celebrate your birthday with your family. (c) Your friend asks you where you got your phone from. You tell her that it was a birthday present from your dad. Your friends admire your phone and congratulate you on your good fortune. One of your friends has her own phone, but the others don't and wish they also had. They explain the reasons why they do not have phones yet and describe their plans for acquiring their own phones. (d) You and your friends talk about cellphones. You compare the different features of your phones as well as those of your siblings and talk about the phones you like most. (e) Then you exchange cellphone numbers with your friend.

Subtasks	Task description specifications	Corresponding lines in target task simulation
(a)	Itshomi yakho ikunqwenelela imini entle. Nabanye abahlobo bakho xa besiva le ndaba imnandi, babeka iminqweno emihle kuwe. <i>Your friend wishes you a happy birthday. Your other friends also congratulate you when they hear that it's your birthday.</i>	Lines 23-38
(b)	Bakubuza ubaxelela ngetheko lakho lokuyivuyiselana nefemeli imini yakho yokuzalwa. <i>When they ask you, you tell them about your plans to celebrate your birthday with your family.</i>	Lines 38-50
(c)	Itshomi yakho ibuza ukuba ifowuni yakho uyifumane phi. Umxelela ukuba uyiphiwe nguyihlo iselula sisipho sangemini yakho yokuzalwa. Abahlobo bakho bayibuka iselulafowuni yakho bekuncoma kungenxa yethamsanqa lakho. Omnye uphethe eyakhe, kodwa abanye abangenazo. Bona abanqwenela iselula, bachaza izizathu zokungakayifumani. <i>Your friend asks you where you got your phone from. You tell her that it was a birthday present from your dad. Your friends admire your phone and congratulate you on your good fortune. One of your friends has her own phone, but others don't and wish they also had. They explain the reasons why they do not have phones yet and describe their plans for acquiring their own phones.</i>	Lines 51-70
(d)	Wena nabahlobo bakho nincokola ngeeselula. Niyathelekisa iiselula zenu nezakokwabo neempawu zazo ezibanga umdla kwaye nithetha ngezona selula zintle zithandwa nina.	Lines 71-93

(e)	<p><i>You and your friends talk about cellphones. You compare the different features of your phones as well as those of your siblings and talk about the phones you like most.</i></p> <p>Wena netshomi yakho nixelelana iinombolo zenu zeeselefowuni ukuze nifowunelane.</p> <p><i>Then you exchange cellphone numbers with your friend so you can phone each other.</i></p>	Lines 94-104
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6.4.2 Target task 4 interactive complexity analysis

In this section the interactional demands, as expressed in the task description specifications are analyzed. The participants are all learners with an equal status and role. All the other interactant demands are dependent on specific individual participant variables, which can only be identified within the particular setting of task implementation, and are consequently excluded from a priori complexity analysis. An analysis of the relevant participation variables within each subtask affords pedagogic task type identification (see section 6.4.5).

During subtask (a) *Your friend wishes you a happy birthday. Your other friends also congratulate you when they hear that it's your birthday*, the task description specifications indicate low interactional complexity for the variables [+ open solution, + one-way flow, + convergent solution, + few contributions needed, + negotiation not needed]. The only variable high in interactional complexity is [- few participants], however this subcomponent exhibits minimal interactional complexity. Subtask (b) *You tell them about your plans to celebrate your birthday with your family*, remains low in interactional complexity for all variables except [- open solution, - few contributions needed], which are due to the required longer segments of narration describing specific plans for the birthday celebrations.

The task description specifications for subtask (c) *Your friend asks you where you got your phone from. You tell her that it was a birthday present from your dad. Your friends admire your phone and congratulate you on your good fortune. One of your friends own her own phone, but the others don't and wish they also had. They explain the reasons why they do not have phones yet, and describe their plans for acquiring their own phones*, demand [- one-way flow, - convergent solution, - few participants, - few contributions needed]. Although negotiation is not needed and the solution remains open, the interactional complexity increases

during subtask (c). The task description specifications for subtask (d) *You and your friends talk about cellphones. You compare the different features of your phones as well as those of your siblings and talk about the phones you like most*, indicate high interactional demands for all the participation variables except for [+ open solution]. Comparing the different phone types and differences in personal preferences rely on more contributions and negotiations, and, therefore, result in high interactional complexity.

The final subtask (e) *Then you exchange cellphone numbers with your friend so you can phone each other*, demands two-way interactional flow and a closed task solution, however, the participation variables exhibit mostly low interactional complexity.

In summary, the interactive complexity is low during subtask (a), but increases during subtask (b) due to the longer stretches of monologue that are required. During subtask (c) the interactive complexity is much increased, and subtask (d) presents high interactive complexity. In subtask (e) the interactive complexity is low again.

6.4.3 Target task 4 cognitive complexity analysis

In this section the cognitive complexity for target task 4, as expressed in the task description specifications, is analyzed in accordance with the cognitive demands presented in the performative and developmental dimensions in terms of Robinson's (2010) Triadic Componential Framework.

Subtask (a) requires minimal cognitive demands, as the target description specifications indicate low complexity in the developmental dimension with [+ here-and-now, + few elements, - spatial reasoning, - causal reasoning, - perspective-taking], as well as in the performative dimension with [+ single task, + few steps]. Furthermore, some of the participants were not aware of the birthday beforehand and, consequently, had [- planning time], whereas one of the task participants was aware of the occasion and had [+ planning time]. The traditional format for birthday wishes requires [+ intentional reasoning], however, its formulaic nature limits the cognitive demands significantly.

During subtask (b) the performative demands remain low with [+/- planning time, + single task, + few steps, + prior knowledge], however, the conceptual demands increase with [- here-and-now, + intentional reasoning]. In subtask (c) the conceptual demands increase further with [+ perspective-taking, + causal reasoning, + intentional reasoning]. The performative demands also increase with [- planning time, - few steps]. Subtask (d) remains cognitively complex, as

learners also compare phones of siblings, which implies [- here-and-now, - few elements] and [+ perspective-taking]. Performative demands are made by the resource-dispersing variables [- planning time, - task structure].

In the final subtask (e) the cognitive demands are very low, as the exchange of phone numbers [- few elements, + intentional reasoning] is executed within a familiar format [+ structure provided], relies on [+ prior knowledge], and is conducted in [+ here-and-now].

Summarizing this section, the cognitive complexity is low for subtask (a), within both the performative and developmental dimensions. In subtask (b) the performative demands do not increase much, but the cognitive complexity is higher due to an increase in conceptual demands. In subtasks (c) and (d) the cognitive complexity is high. In subtask (e) the cognitive complexity is low due to the familiar format.

6.4.4 Target task 4 linguistic complexity analysis

In this section, the grammatical, syntactic and lexical structures in the simulated dialogue for target task 4 are analyzed. See appendix 4 for the complete simulated dialogue illustrating language contents for target task 4.

The sentences in subtask (a) are linguistically simple and mainly monoclausal with formulaic expressions used for greeting, enquiring after each other's well-being, confirming the birthday and for expressing good birthday wishes. One interactant first enquires and casually initiates the topic with the indefinite, negative copula used with the noun and its second person possessive pronoun, as well as the demonstrative occurring with the possessive descriptive, nominal infinitive phrase: **asiyomini yakho le yokuzalwa?** (lines 23-24). A second interactant exclaims her surprise at the news (**Yhu!**) and indicates the performative demand of on-line planning. This second interactant's birthday wishes include formulaic language, but also indicates intentional reasoning: **Ulonwabele usuku lwakho, Anda mhlobo wam! Ukhule, ungakhokhobi!** (line 36). Both these sentences are expressed in the imperative mood used with the second person object concord. The first sentence is a single clause with the applicative **-el-**, denoting purpose. The second sentence has two clauses. The main clause is in the imperative with the second person object concord, while the second clause is in the negative subjunctive mood, indicating a polite prohibition. The interactive and conceptual simplicity are also reflected in the minimal lexical complexity as compared to the other subtasks in target task 4. (See section 6.9, table 6.1 for the complexity analyses summary.) The lexical

complexity analysis of subtask (a) presents nouns (5), verbs (5), an adjective (1) and an adverb (1).

Subtask (b) is initiated by a third interactant enquiring about the birthday celebrations: **He wethu, usiphathele ikeyiki, ukuze sitye kamnandi ngemini yakho?** (line 39) Intentional reasoning is evident in the use of the applicative **-el-** used with the first person plural object concord, denoting benefit, as well as the conjunction **ukuze**. This is a complex sentence consisting of two clauses. The main clause is in the past tense indicative mood, and the subordinate clause is in the subjunctive mood used with **ukuze**, denoting objective or intention. The interlocutor responds to the enquiry by narrating their plans for celebrating her birthday. It could be argued with relative certainty that the plans have been discussed at home [+ planning time]. The celebrations are planned for a later time [- here-and-now] and this affords the use of the future tense, time words and consecutive actions: **Umama uza kundithengela ikeyiki ngempelaveki, ndivuyisane nezizalwane zam.** (lines 41-42) The main clause is in the future tense indicative mood, and the prepositional phrase with **nga-** denotes time. The subordinate clause is in the subjunctive mood, indicating consecutive actions. It is a reciprocal verb with the affix **-an-**, and takes a complement with the preposition **na-**. An interactant prompts the information-giver to elaborate, and her question is expressed in the future tense: **Niza kuthini?** (line 45) The information-giver responds by expressing uncertainty with the mental state verb in the perfect mood **andiqinisekanga**, and the conjunct **kodwa** joining two coordinated sentences, in line 47. The narration continues with the temporal mood **aku-** used with the subject concord **ba-**, giving the meaning *when they*. Tense is expressed in the complement clause, which is followed by the situative mood and the use of the applicative **-el-**, denoting purpose. The noun phrase consists of a noun, descriptive possessive nominal infinitive and its first person possessive pronoun: **Bakufika siza kubraya, sibhiyozela umhla wokuzalwa kwam** (line 48). The narration concerns the activities planned, and this activity orientation is evident in the lexical complexity analysis: nouns (6), verbs (11) and adverbs (4).

In subtask (c), the task description specifications indicate an increase in cognitive demands along the developmental dimensions regarding the resource-directing variables [+ causal reasoning, + intentional reasoning, + perspective-taking]. One of the interactants presents her perspective, while enquiring inquisitively after the unfamiliar object. The conceptual complexity is reflected in the syntactic complexity of this multiclausal sentence: **Yintoni leyo uyiphethe entle ebhlowu?** (line 51). The question word *what* is a compound of the copula + the noun **into** + the interrogative **-ni**. The noun is followed by the second position

demonstrative **leyo**, indicating a distance further from the speaker, but close to the listener, followed by the verbal relative without the definite morpheme **a**, but with the object concord, followed by the definite descriptive adjective and the definite nominal relative clause. A second interactant presents her perspective with the mental state verb **thanda** that carries the object concord to denote emphasis, as it is used with the object and its possessive pronoun, followed by the nominal relative clause and the comparative clause with **okwa-**, constituting a complex nominal phrase: **Ndiyawuthanda umbala wayo obhlowu okwesibakabaka** (line 63).

Causal reasoning is conceptualized along with intentional reasoning in this subtask of the target task's simulated dialogue:

Nam ndinqwenela iselula enjalo, kodwa andinayo, ngoba utata uthi ndiyoyifumana xa ndine-16. (lines 56-57) The mental state verb appears with the applicative **-el-**, which denotes objective, whereas the conjunction **ngoba** indicates causal reasoning. The sentential preposition **xa** introduces a condition. This complex sentence has five clauses.

Ndisagcina imali yokuzithengela iselfowuni. Ndifuna iSony ukuze ndifumane iInstaghem. (lines 68-69) The first sentence presents causal reasoning and has two clauses. The main clause is in the indicative mood and contains the progressive **sa** affix. The sentence object, **imali**, forms part of a complex nominal phrase with a possessive descriptive verbal infinitive clause, which contains the reflexive **zi** affix that represents the direct object and along with the applicative **-el-** denote benefactive, followed by the indirect object **iselfowuni**. The second sentence also has two clauses, and the conjunction **ukuze** denotes intentional reasoning.

Subtask (c) presents nouns (10), verbs (10), adjectives (4) and an adverb (1).

In subtask (d), perspective-taking is expressed in mental state verbs, like **thanda** (lines 82, 86, 90), **khetha** (line 73) and **funi** (line 82). The conceptual difficulty of comparing different cellphones [- few elements] that they don't have with them [- here-and-now] is reflected in the syntactic complexity:

Ndikhetha ukumamela umculo kwaye ibhetri yayo iyagcina kade phezu kuneNokia kadade wam. (lines 73-74) This complex sentence has three clauses. The main clause is in the indicative mood, and takes a complement verbal infinitive clause with an object. The third clause, a coordinated clause is introduced by the conjunction **kwaye**, and is in the indicative mood, and takes the comparative prepositional phrase with **kuna-**.

The conjunctions **okanye** (line 90) and **kodwa** (line 92) also link coordinated clauses in this subtask.

Ndiyathanda uSony mna kangangokuba andiyifuni enye ifowuni ngaphandle kweSony. (lines 82-83) The sentence has two clauses in the indicative mood and is complex. The first clause contains the first person absolute pronoun that denotes emphasis with the perspective-taking argument. The sentential preposition, **kangangokuba**, introduces the subordinate clause. It functions as a comparative element, and it takes an indicative complement clause.

Utata wam unetebleti eyiSamsung Galaxy. Ndiyayithanda ngoba inkulu okweTivi encinci. (lines 86-87) The first sentence has two clauses. The main clause presents the copula with the preposition **na-** that represents a possessive relation with the complement. The verbal relative clause presents a copula in an identificative relation with the complement. The second sentence also has two clauses. The first clause is the long present tense **-ya-** with an object concord in the indicative mood. The subordinate clause is introduced by the conjunction **ngoba** that denotes [+ causal reasoning], and is the copula with a descriptive adjectival complement phrase that includes the comparative **okwa-** with a noun phrase.

The lexical complexity analysis of content words in subtask (d) presents nouns (15), verbs (12), adjectives (6) and adverbs (6).

The sentences in subtask (e) are mainly monoclausal and structurally simple, however, there is an example of intentional reasoning expressed in the following sentence: **Khawundiphe eyakho ndize ndiyingenise kwiselula yam** (line 96). This complex sentence consists of two clauses. The first is in the hortative mood **kha-**, expressing a polite request followed by the possessive pronoun appearing without its head and, consequently, requiring the definite **a** in the relative relation. The second clause is introduced by the auxiliary verb **-ze** presenting a consecutive action, and taking a complement clause in the subjunctive mood, which is followed by the locative noun phrase with the locative preposition **kwi-**. In line 94, the infinitive with the second person object concord present a multiclausal sentence with subordination (Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth, 2000). The clauses in line 98 illustrate parataxis and are considered coordinated clauses (Norris and Ortega, 2009). The lexical complexity analysis of subtask (e) is also low with nouns (3), verbs (6), an adjective (1) and adverbs (2).

In this section, a clear correlation between cognitive and linguistic complexity was illustrated with reference to specific language forms and syntactic complexity in the target task's dialogue.

The linguistic complexity of the learners' utterances is mostly low in subtask (a), but high in subtasks (b), (c) and (d). In subtask (e) the linguistic complexity is low.

6.4.5 Pedagogic task versions of target task 4

In this section, pedagogic tasks are identified and modified based on the previous interactive and complexity analysis, in sections 6.4.2 and 6.4.3. Modifications to the task design features in terms of Robinson's SSARC model for the grading and sequencing of tasks from least to most complex task design afford the restructuring and automatization of L2 knowledge (Robinson, 2010). This target task's description specifications present two important topics for young learners: birthdays (see subtasks *a* and *b*) and cellular phones (see subtasks *c*, *d* and *e*). As subtask (a) depends largely on formulaic language and socio-cultural norms, specific methodological activities regarding formulaic language are suggested in sections 7.3.2.1 and 7.3.2.2.

In subtask (b) the participation variables [+ one-way flow, - open solution, - few contributions, + negotiation not needed] are compatible with a narrative pedagogic task type. The closed, convergent solution for the pedagogic task is the detailed description of an upcoming birthday party, including all the necessary arrangements. The cognitive complexity analysis in 6.4.3 identified an increase in conceptual demands with resource-directing variables [- here-and-now, + intentional reasoning], but the performative demands are low. The task design can be modified increasing the cognitive complexity along the performative dimension by introducing resource-dispersing variables [- planning time, - few steps].

A narrative task: my birthday

Dimensions of Complexity	Simple 1	2	3	4	Complex 5
Planning time	+	-	-	-	-
Here-and-now	+	+	-	-	-
Few steps	+	+	+	-	-
Intentional reasoning	-	-	-	-	+

In the simplest version of this task, the task participants are provided with [+ planning time], and asked to tell the interlocutor about their ideal birthday party. In the second pedagogic task version the interactants work in groups planning a joint birthday party. As they have to

accommodate everyone's contributions in their party plans, this task requires on-line planning. The third pedagogic task version requires one member of the group to tell another group about their group's party plans [- here-and-now]. During the fourth version of the task, the number of task steps are increased and could include deciding and budgeting for a specific number of guests, booking the venue and identifying fun party entertainment activities [- few steps]. In the final, most complex version of the pedagogic task, the task participants describe the party arrangements and identify the necessary preparations [+ intentional reasoning].

In subtask (c), the interactants talk about acquiring a cellphone, giving reasons for not owning a cellphone [+ causal reasoning] and describe their plans for getting a phone [+ intentional reasoning]. This complex reasoning along with the participant variables making interactional demands [- one-way, - convergent solution, - few contributions] are congruent with a reasoning-gap task that has an open outcome of presenting a convincing argument for owning a cellphone. The performative dimension of subtask (c) includes the variables [- planning time, - few steps].

A reasoning-gap task: Getting a cellphone

Dimensions of Complexity	Simple 1	2	3	4	Complex 5
Planning time	+	-	-	-	-
Causal reasoning	-	-	+	+	+
Few steps	+	+	+	-	-
Intentional reasoning	-	-	-	-	+

In the simplest version, the interactants are instructed to ask each other in pairs whether they have a cell phone or not. In the second version of the task, the participants work in bigger groups and repeat the question [- planning time]. In the third version, the task participants have to explain where they got their phones, or if they don't have phones they must provide a reason [+ causal reasoning]. In the fourth version, task participants ask each other whether they own a cellphone or not and where they got it, or why they don't have a phone yet. They must also explain the difficulties of owning a phone [- few steps]. In the final, most complex pedagogic task version, the task participants must describe a responsible plan for acquiring and managing a cellphone [+ intentional reasoning]. With older learners, this final task version can be modified to present a reasoning-gap task with task participants presenting arguments for or against the benefits of cellphones and an appropriate starting age for owning your own phone.

In subtask (d) information is exchanged and opinions expressed regarding different cellphones [+ perspective-taking]. This cognitive factor with the interactive factors [- one-way flow, - convergent solution, - few contributions needed, - negotiation not needed, + open solution] are compatible with an opinion-gap task where the task outcome is the comparison of different cellphones to express preference. Further resource-directing variables [- here-and-now] and [- few elements] with reference to the number of phones and features that are compared make conceptual demands. In the performative dimension the task procedure is complicated with [- planning time, - task structure].

An opinion-gap task: Our cellphones

Dimensions of Complexity	Simple 1	2	3	4	Complex 5
Planning time	+	-	-	-	-
Here-and-now	+	+	-	-	-
Task structure	+	+	+	-	-
Few elements	+	+	+	+	-

This is an opinion-gap task about cellphones, and requires the task participants to express their opinions about different cellphone models. In the simplest version, the task participants are given a cellphone brochure or asked to make or bring a brochure to school, with time given to prepare their opinion stating that they like and/or dislike a phone and/or prefer one phone to another. In the second task version, they switch partners and again describe the phone stating their preference [- planning time]. In the third version, they have to respond to their interlocutor's chosen phone, and express their opinion about that particular phone model [- here-and-now]. They can repeat this task version referring to friends' and/or family member's phones. In the fourth version task, participants report back to the class on their preferred phone models without the brochure [- task structure], automatizing language knowledge. In the last version, the task participants compare the different phone models' features that were reported on [- few elements].

Subtask (e) is a typical two-way information-gap task with interactants exchanging contact details. The pedagogic task versions can be modified to include more personal information, such as Twitter and Instagram account details, to be exchanged. The complexity analysis in section 6.4.3 identified [- few elements, + intentional reasoning, + prior knowledge, + structure provided] as cognitive factors in the task description specifications. These factors are modified

in five pedagogic task versions with increasing complexity. The closed, convergent task outcome is the complete personal information form and “befriending” their interlocutor on social media.

A two-way information-gap task: personal information

Dimensions of Complexity	Simple 1	2	3	4	Complex 5
Prior knowledge	+	-	-	-	-
Few elements	+	+	-	-	-
Structure provided	+	+	+	-	-
Intentional reasoning	-	-	-	-	+

This is a jigsaw-puzzle where task participants work in groups, exchanging information in order to complete a form for personal information and emergency numbers. In the simplest task version, the task participants exchange their own phone numbers [+ prior knowledge]. In the second version, they have to exchange the information on their forms, which include fictional characters and emergency numbers, with their interlocutors acquiring the information that they still need to complete their forms. In the third task version, they are given extended forms with more information to ask for and give [- few elements]. In the fourth task version, the learners have to create their own list for important personal information, contact details of friends and emergency numbers [- structure provided]. They repeat the task and ask other task participants to provide the missing details they need. In the last version, task participants work in pairs asking the interlocutor for their contact details, requesting to add them to their contact list in order to contact them [+ intentional reasoning].

In this section, the interactive demands and cognitive factors of subcomponents of target task 4 were identified and applied to a narrative task, opinion-gap, reasoning-gap and information-gap tasks. The resource-directing variables [- here-and-now, + intentional reasoning, + perspective-taking] making conceptual demands were presented as significant, reflecting in the linguistic complexity analysis. Some example tasks are suggested and presented on a cline that gradually increases the cognitive complexity along performative and developmental dimensions, so as to push learner output and afford L2 development.

6.5 TARGET TASK 6: MY FAVOURITE TELEVISION DRAMA

Target task 6, 7 and 8 share comparable interactive and cognitive factors. In target task 6 and 7 (*the soccer game*) the learners are recounting an event of great social interest and importance for younger learners: a television drama and a soccer game. Interest allows the perceiving and effectuation of language affordances. (See section 2.2.4.2 for the discussion of internal individual language affordances.) Both target task 6 and 8 (*a group role play*) revolve around a situation where the learners play roles of fictional characters, and have to make decisions about dividing the roles for play-acting on the play ground or for role play in an oral presentation in class, respectively. All three these tasks afford conceptualization that demands [- here-and-now, + intentional reasoning, + perspective-taking], while comparable task conditions suggest similar stereotype tasks. See appendices 7 and 8 for target tasks 7 and 8's description specifications and the complete simulated dialogues for these two tasks. In section 6.9 the interactive, cognitive and linguistic complexity summaries for target task 7 and 8 are provided.

6.5.1 Target task 6 description specifications

In this section, the task description specifications and subcomponents for target task 6 are presented in Xhosa and English. In the table below, the subtasks are numbered alphabetically and the corresponding lines for each subtask in the simulated dialogue are provided. (See appendix 6 for the target task description specifications and the complete simulated dialogue.)

(a) Udibana nabahlobo bakho esikolweni phambi kokuqala kwaso. Bayadlala intsomi besenza ngathi bangabadlali benkqubo yetivi. Ucela ukuba ungene ekudlaleni kwabo. Nincokola ngowona mdlalo oye wabukelwa nina kwitivi usitsho kwinkqubo yeNext Step kwaye nixoxa ukuba ngoobani abadlalela endaweni kowuphi umdlali wale intsomi. (b) Wena khange uyibukele inkqubo yemini edlulileyo. Abahlobo bakho bakuchazela ukuba kwenzeke ntoni kule nkqubo yetivi izolo. (c) Nixelelana izimvo zenu kwaye niqikelela ukuba kuza kwenzeka kwintsomi.

(a) *You are meeting with your friends on the playground before school starts. They are playing and pretending to be television actors. You ask if you may join them. You chat about your favourite TV drama, The Next Step, and discuss who plays which actor. (b) You didn't watch the previous day's episode. Your friends tell you what happened in the previous day's episode. (c) You share your opinions and predict what is going to happen next in the story.*

Subtasks	Task description specifications	Corresponding lines in target task simulation
(a)	<p>Udibana nabahlobo bakho esikolweni phambi kokuqala kwaso. Bayadlala intsomi besenza ngathi bangabadlali benkqubo yetivi. Ucela ukuba ungene ekudlaleni kwabo. Nincokola ngowona mdlalo oye wabukelwa nina kwitivi usitsho kwinkqubo yeNext Step kwaye nixoxa ukuba ngoobani abadlalela endaweni kowuphi umdlali wale intsomi.</p> <p><i>You are meeting with your friends on the playground before school starts. They are playing and pretending to be television actors. You ask if you may join them. You chat about your favourite TV drama, The Next Step, and discuss who plays which actor.</i></p>	Lines 15-23
(b)	<p>Wena khange uyibukele inkqubo yemini edlulileyo. Abahlobo bakho bakuchazela ukuba kwenzeke ntoni kule nkqubo yetivi izolo.</p> <p><i>You didn't watch the previous day's episode. Your friends tell you what happened in the previous day's episode.</i></p>	Lines 24-47/49, 53-62
(c)	<p>Nixelana izimvo zenu kwaye niqikelela ukuba kuza kwenzeka kwintsomi.</p> <p><i>You share your opinions and predict what is going to happen next in the story.</i></p>	Lines 47-48/50, 51-52, 63-71

6.5.2 Target task 6 interactive complexity analysis

In this section, the interactional demands of the target task are analyzed as indicated by the task description specifications to describe the interactive complexity of the subcomponents of target task 6. An analysis of the relevant participation variables within each subtask affords pedagogic task type identification in accordance with Robinson's taxonomic Triadic Componential Framework (2010:250) (see section 6.5.5).

Subtask (a) *You are meeting with your friends on the playground before school starts. They are playing and pretending to be television actors. You ask if you may join them. You chat about your favourite TV drama, The Next Step, and discuss who plays which actor*, presents interactive complexity within a number of the participation variables: [- one-way flow, - few participants, - negotiation not needed]. The task requires an open and convergent solution. The interactive factors indicate a transactional task type that is predominantly a decision-making task.

In subtask (b) *You didn't watch the previous day's episode. Your friends tell you what happened in the previous day's episode*, interactional demands are made by [- open solution, - few contributions needed], with the friends being the only information supplier [+ one-way flow]. The task description specifications represent a one-way information-gap task type that is a narrative task.

Subtask (c) *You share your opinions and predict what is going to happen next in the story*, presents high interactive complexity with all the participational variables making interactional demands, except for [+ open solution]: [- one-way flow, - convergent solution, - few participants, - few contributions needed, - negotiation not needed]. The task description specifications initially indicate an opinion-gap task that becomes a reasoning-gap task, which is a prediction task.

In summary, the interactive complexity is significant throughout this target task analysis, with subtask (b) being the least complex, and subtask (c) presenting the most interactive demands.

6.5.3 Target task 6 cognitive complexity analysis

The cognitive complexity for target task 6 is investigated within the target task description specifications and expressed as a parameter +/-, indicating the nature and extent of the cognitive demands made on the interactants in terms of Robinson's (2010) resource-directing and resource-dispersing variables.

During subtask (a) the cognitive complexity is relative to the demands made by the resource-directing variables [- few elements, + intentional reasoning] and the resource-dispersing variable [- single task]. The task participant requests permission to join the play-acting game and must choose one of the characters to play, presenting multiple tasks [- single task]. The cognitive complexity involved in decision-making can be controlled with the number of characters [+/- few elements] to choose from, depending on the number of other participants involved and the roles they chose. All the participants know the television drama and the characters involved [+ prior knowledge], and understand the game structure [+ task structure], which moderate the cognitive complexity of this task.

Subtask (b) is cognitively complex within the developmental dimension with [- here-and-now, - few elements, + causal reasoning], as well as in the performative dimension with [- few steps, - independency of steps], due to the amount of information and the relationships between the elements (the television drama's characters and events).

In subtask (c), the interactants share their opinions and make predictions regarding different developments in the story line. The cognitive demands are higher for subtask (c) with [- here-and-now, + intentional reasoning, + perspective-taking] in the developmental dimension, as well as [- single task, - few steps, - independency of steps] in the performative dimension.

In summary, the cognitive complexity of target task 6 is considered high throughout all the subcomponents, but can be controlled in subtasks (a) and (b) with the number of elements, amount of information and prior knowledge of the story line. Subtask (c) is high in cognitive complexity with complex reasoning, as information has to be synthesized, inferred and deductions made.

6.5.4 Target task 6 linguistic complexity analysis

An analysis of the grammatical and syntactic structures in the simulation dialogue of target task 6 supports the cognitive complexity analysis in section 6.5.3, informing a pedagogic approach with focus on form (see sections 7.3.2.1 and 7.3.2.2). See appendix 6 for the complete simulated dialogue.

In subtask (a) the sentences are mostly monoclausal and in the present tense [+ here-and-now]. However, the number of characters and participants involved [- few elements] result in complex, coordinated clauses: **Ndenza iballet kwaye uAnikwa odlala indima kaAmanda wenza iHip Hop.** (lines 17-18) The conjunction **kwaye** joins two coordinated sentences, resulting in three clauses. The first and the third clauses are in the indicative mood. The second clause is in the relative mood.

The task participant's intention to become involved in the game [+ intentional reasoning] also results in complex clauses: **Nam, ndifuna ukudlala nani. Ndicela ndidlale indima kaMichelle okanye ekaEmily.** (lines 21-22) The first sentence is introduced by the preposition **na-** with the first person singular pronoun, denoting inclusivity. This is followed by the mental state verb in the indicative mood and its complement infinitive clause that takes a prepositional phrase **na-** and the second person plural pronoun, denoting association. The second sentence has two clauses. The first clause's verb, **-cela**, denotes a polite request, and is in the indicative mood. The second clause is a subordinate clause in the subjunctive mood, expressing desire. The object noun phrases are coordinated and appear with a descriptive possessive nominal modifier. The noun phrases are joined by the existential quantifier **okanye** meaning *or*. The second descriptive possessive nominal modifier **ekaEmily** appears without the head **indima**,

which makes the definite **a** compulsory. Subtask (a) exhibits minimal lexical density with nouns (4), verbs (2) and an adjective (1).

In subtask (b), the participants are narrating what happened in the previous day's episode [-here-and-now], resulting in the use of other tenses and comprehension checks with more complex sentences:

Uyayazi ukuba iqela likaNext Step liza kungena kukhuphiswano lokudanisa, yebo? (lines 33-34) This question sentence confirms the participants' shared prior knowledge. The main clause is a mental state verb in the indicative clause, followed by the complementizer **ukuba** and the embedded sentential complement, which is the future tense in the indicative mood. The adverb is a locative noun phrase with the preposition **ku-** and takes a descriptive possessive nominal infinitive complement.

Bebephuzana phambi kwengozi yokuba uEmily ophuke umlenze. (line 61) Much of the narration is done in the past tense with complex sentences like this. The main clause is the recent past compound tense in the indicative mood, with the locative noun, **phambi**, taking the possessive concord and complement noun phrase that has a possessive complementizer **kwengozi yokuba** and its complement relative clause in the subjunctive mood: **ophuke**.

Causal reasoning is expressed in complex sentences with the use of conjunctions, like **ngoba** and **kuba**:

Abazukukwazi ukungenela ukhuphiswano ngoba bashota ngomntu omnye. (lines 34-35) The conjunction, **ngoba**, joins two sentences in the indicative mood. The first sentence consists of two clauses. The main clause is the contracted future tense mental state verb in the indicative mood, with a verbal infinitive complement clause that takes the implicative **-el-**, denoting intention.

Abakwazi ukungena kukhuphiswano belishumi elinanye, kuba kunyanzelekile ukuba babe balishumi elinambini. (lines 46-47) This sentence is complex and has five clauses. The first clause is the mental state verb **azi** in the negative present tense indicative mood, and the second is its complement clause, the verbal infinitive clause, followed by the copulative verb **be-** used with a numeral relative in the situative mood (the third clause), indicating simultaneous actions or condition. The conjunction **kuba** introduces the last two clauses. The existential morpheme **ku** appears with the neutro-passive verb in the perfektum tense indicating a state, with affix **-ek-** denoting necessity, followed by the complementizer **ukuba** and its embedded

sentential complement with the auxiliary verb **be**, in the subjunctive mood, used with the copulative and its numeral relative noun phrase complement.

In subtask (c), the lexical complexity is reflected in the higher productivity and density with nouns (11), verbs (17), adjectives (2) and adverbs (6), and the ratio nouns to verbs indicating a focus on activity.

For subtask (c) the learners need to use mental state verbs, like **-cing-** (lines 49, 61), **-qond-** (line 61), **-fun-** (lines 45, 49), and **-mangalis-** (line 51), as well as the future tense, to make predictions and express their opinions regarding developments in the television drama, afforded by the conceptual demands presented in the task specifications [- here-and-now, + perspective-taking]. An analysis of the task-natural language contents in the simulated dialogue also indicates [+ intentional reasoning]:

Kuza kufuneka ukuba uAmanda abancede adanisele uNext Step. (lines 45-46) This complex sentence consists of three clauses. The main clause is the mental state verb **-fun-** expressed in the neutro-passive form, in the future tense indicative mood and denotes necessity, which is followed by two coordinated clauses in the subjunctive mood. The applicative **-el-** indicates benefactor and intentional reasoning.

Kodwa andiqondi ukuba bafanelene. Mna, ndicinga ukuba uHunter ufanele athandane noMichelle. (lines 61-62) The existential quantifier **kodwa** introduces the first sentence and emphasizes the speaker's perspective. The main clause is the negative form of the mental state verb and the complementizer **ukuba** is followed by its indicative mood complement in the perfect tense to denote a state. The second sentence is introduced by the first person absolute pronoun, strengthening the argument with emphasis. This complex sentence has three clauses. The main clause is in the indicative mood, followed by the complement clause in the perfect indicative mood and its subordinate clause in the subjunctive mood, which denotes necessity. The reciprocal affix **-ana** is coordinated with the prepositional noun phrase **na-**.

Subtask (c) presents nouns (2), verbs (12) and an adverb (1), with the focus remaining on activity.

Summarizing this section, the cognitive demands, which were identified in section 6.5.3, are conceptualized through complex morphosyntactic constructions in the target task dialogue. The linguistic complexity of the learners' utterances corresponds with the interactive and cognitive complexity. The syntactic complexity is lower in subtask (a), but higher in subtask (b), and

most complex in subtask (c). The lexical complexity is highest in subtask (b), which can be contributed the higher productivity required by focusing on activity, as well as by the monologue mode and narrative nature of the subtask. (See section 5.3 for research on task design, including task mode.)

6.5.5 Pedagogic task versions of target task 6

In this section, a task sequence with three pedagogic tasks are identified and modified based on the previous interactive and complexity analysis, in sections 6.5.2 and 6.5.3. The main pedagogic task is a narrative task represented in subtask (b). This is preceded by a play-acting game, in subtask (a), and followed by a type of prediction task, in subtask (c). According to Willis and Willis (2007), prediction tasks work well with narrative tasks and can also precede a reading or listening task so as to help learners prepare for the main task by establishing a context. Modifications to the task design features of each pedagogic task in terms of Robinson's SSARC model are described, affording L2 development (Robinson, 2010).

The participation variables of subtask (a) was described as supporting a decision-making task (see section 6.5.2) with the open, convergent task outcome of acquiring permission to partake in a play-acting game, and identifying an appropriate character to play. In the diagram below, five pedagogic task versions are presented on a cline that controls and increases the task's cognitive complexity by systematically introducing the cognitive factors identified in section 6.5.3.

A decision-making task: play-acting game

Dimensions of Complexity	Simple 1	2	3	4	Complex 5
Single task	+	-	-	-	-
Intentional reasoning	-	-	+	+	+
Prior knowledge	+	+	+	-	-
Few elements	+	+	+	+	-

The task is set in the [+ here-and-now] dimension with [+ structure provided] throughout all five pedagogic versions. For the first three pedagogic task versions the participants are asked to choose and perform their favourite television drama in groups [+ prior knowledge]. The first pedagogic version is simple for all variables involved with the interactants identifying a drama

and character of their choice, presenting their request to the group. In the second version, the task participants have to consider all interactants' requests when identifying the drama and their character [- single task]. During the third pedagogic task version, the interactants equate themselves to a character from the drama, describing their intentions as to how they want to play [+ intentional reasoning]. In the fourth version, the task participants are presented with information about an unknown television drama [- prior knowledge], and they have to divide the matching number of roles amongst themselves, identifying each participant's intended actions. During the last pedagogic version, maximum complexity is introduced, when the interactants are presented with a new television drama with an exceeding number of different characters to familiarize themselves with in order to divide the roles according to the intended actions [- few elements].

In subtask (b) the closed, convergent task solution is the comprehensive narration of the previous episode of a popular television drama (see section 6.5.2). The number of story elements (+/- few elements) and the length of the story line (+/- few steps, - independency of steps) are inherent to this task type and determine cognitive complexity in the conceptual and procedural dimensions, respectively. In the diagram below, the task design is modified gradually throughout five pedagogic task versions in terms of Robinson's SSARC model along the performative and cognitive dimensions with variables previously identified within the task description specifications (see section 6.5.3).

A narrative task: My favourite television drama

Dimensions of Complexity	Simple 1	2	3	4	Complex 5
Planning time	+	-	-	-	-
Here-and-now	+	+	-	-	-
Prior knowledge	+	+	+	-	-
Causal reasoning	-	-	-	-	+

The first pedagogic version of this task is simple and stable. The task participants work in pairs with interactants taking turns to describe their favourite television drama (+ one-way flow). They are instructed only to identify the name, genre and main characters. For this first version, the learners are given enough time to plan and seek assistance in formulating their answers. During the second version, the task participants switch partners and tell their new interlocutor

about their favourite television programme [- planning time]. During the third version, the interactants describe what happened in a previous episode of the drama, which they watched recently [- here-and-now]. With the fourth pedagogic task version, the task participants are given pictures of a popular youth television drama, and they must describe what happened in this “episode” [- prior knowledge]. In the last, most complex version, the task participants retell the story starting with the last picture working back to the first, and explaining what caused the events in each picture [+ causal reasoning].

The interactive factors for subtask (c) include two-way interaction and negotiation leading to an open, divergent solution (see section 6.5.2). Modifications to the task design, increasing the cognitive complexity of the pedagogic task version, include [- task structure]. This can be achieved by presenting the task participants with jumbled up pictures. The task outcome is a reasonable argument regarding the events illustrated in the pictures, presented in chronological order, with an explanation of how the events in each picture lead on to the next.

A reasoning-gap task: A prediction task

Dimensions of Complexity	Simple 1	2	3	4	Complex 5
Planning time	+	-	-	-	-
Perspective-taking	-	-	+	+	+
Few steps	+	+	+	-	-
Intentional reasoning	-	-	-	-	+

For the first three versions, the task participants are presented with one or more pictures [+ few steps] relating to a popular television drama. Interactants work in groups or pairs and have adequate time to describe and discuss the actions presented in the picture(s). For the second pedagogic version, the task participants work with different interactants, but use the same picture(s) and repeat their initial descriptions of what happens in the picture(s) [- planning time]. The interactants compare the different groups’ answers, expressing their own perspectives in the third task version [+ perspective-taking]. In the fourth version the task participants are given more pictures to describe. They are asked to arrange the pictures in chronological order and express their opinions regarding the developments in the story as presented in the pictures [- few steps]. In the last, most complex pedagogic task version, the task participants must

present a set of new pictures in chronological order, explaining how each picture leads to the next [+ intentional reasoning].

Summarizing this section, the interactive demands of the target tasks indicate compatibility with transactional tasks, information-gap tasks, opinion-gap tasks and reasoning-gap task types. Subcomponents making cognitive demands included [- few elements, + intentional reasoning, + perspective-taking], but task complexity is moderated by [+ task structure, + prior knowledge] in the procedural dimension. A description of modifications of task features in the task design, presenting pedagogic task sequences in accordance with Robinson's SSARC-model (2010), allows for the adjustment of task complexity on a cline from least to most complex, allowing a match with individual learners' abilities, challenging learners to afford L2 development.

6.6 TARGET TASK 9: CLASS DISCIPLINE

The contents of target tasks 9 and 10 revolve around the topic of class discipline. This topic pertinently addresses learners' social needs within the school environment. (See sections 2.2.5 and 5.5.3 for a discussion of task syllabus design and language curriculum affordances relevant to young learners' needs and goals permitting the effectuation of language affordances.) Target task 10 (*school rules*) has an open solution and is performed in the here-and-now developmental dimension, which renders it less complex than target task 9. However, target task 10(d) presents an advanced debating task where the learners have to synthesize information and draw conclusions based on complex reasoning. On the other hand, target task 9(c) involves the class monitor reporting to the teacher about what caused a disturbance between learners in the classroom, requiring intentional reasoning. This task is similar to the *Section Chief Reporting Task* described by Robinson (2011a), and references are made to Robinson's analysis of task complexity and task sequencing in section 6.6.5 (2011a: 9-11). The interactive and cognitive complexity factors of these two tasks are summarized and compared in section 6.9, table 6.1. See appendix 10 for target task 10's description specifications and the complete simulated dialogue.

6.6.1 Target task 9 description specifications

In this section the subcomponents of target task 9 are described and presented as subtasks with distinct non-linguistic task goals. The corresponding lines in the simulated dialogue for each subtask are provided in the table below. See appendix 9 for the complete task description specifications and the Xhosa/English simulated dialogue.

Uyabhala umsebenzi wakho eklasini. Utitshala wakho uxelela abafundi ukuba kufuneka aphume eklasini. Utitshala uniyalela ukuba niqhubeke nigqibezele umsebenzi wenu. (a) Umhlobo wakho ukubuza umsebenzi wesifundo, uze umcacisele imiyalelo katitshala. (b) Ucela ukuba uziboleke iikhrayoni ezimbalwa zetshomi yakho. Umhlobo uvuma akuyinike, kodwa ngamanye amaxesha wala ngelo thuba esayisebenzisa. Xa uyibuyisa kuye ikrayoni yakhe, umhlobo wakho uchaza indawo yeekhrayoni zakhe. Uthe akuphuma utitshala eklasini, abafundi abambalwa bavele baphakama bahamba ezidesikeni. Bayacaphukisana, bahluphana batsho bangxole. Utitshala ubuye wangena eklasini. Abafundi becwaka bakubona utitshala edana kangaka. (c) Emva koko utitshala ubuze kuwe ukuba kwenzeke ntoni ngexesha ebengekho eklasini. Umcacisela yonke into eyenzekileyo. Uxela ngoobani abaphikiswano nezizathu zempikiswano. (d) Utitshala uze abohlwaya bonke abantwana. Wena ucebisa ukuba utitshala abohlwaya ngokobulungisa kwaye uxhasa uluvo lwakho.

You are writing your assignment in class. Your teacher tells the students that he has to leave the class. He instructs you to behave and to complete your assignment. (a) Your friend asks about the class assignment and you explain the teacher's instructions. (b) You ask to use a couple of your friend's crayons. She agrees and gives you the crayon, but sometimes refuses when she is still using it at that moment. When you return the crayon, your friend tells you where to put her crayons. When the teacher leaves the classroom, the students just get up and walk around the classroom without any reason. They upset and annoy each other noisily. The teacher enters the class again and the learners keep quiet as they see the teacher's disappointment. (c) Afterwards the teacher asks you to explain what happened when he was gone. You explain to him what happened in detail. You say who argued and the reasons for the argument. (d) The teacher then punishes the whole class. You advise the teacher on a fair punishment and support your judgement.

Subtasks	Task description specifications	Corresponding lines in target task simulation
(a)	<p>Umhlobo wakho ukubuza umsebenzi wesifundo, uze umcacisele imiyalelo katitshala.</p> <p><i>Your friend asks you about the class assignment and you explain the teacher's instructions to her.</i></p>	Lines 41-44, 55-58
(b)	<p>Ucela ukuba uziboleke iikhrayoni ezimbalwa zetshomi yakho. Umhlobo uvuma akuyinike, kodwa ngamanye amaxesha wala ngelo thuba esayisebenzisa. Xa uyibuyisa kuye ikrayoni yakhe, umhlobo wakho uchaza indawo yeekhrayoni zakhe.</p> <p><i>You ask to use a couple of your friend's crayons. She agrees and gives you the crayon, but sometimes refuses when she is still using it at that moment. When you return the crayon, your friend tells you where to put her crayons.</i></p>	Lines 32-40, 45-54, 59-64
(c)	<p>Emva koko utitshala ubuze kuwe ukuba kwenzeke ntoni ngexesha ebengekho eklasini. Umcacisela yonke into eyenzekileyo. Uxela ngoobani abaphikisana nezizathu zempikiswano.</p> <p><i>Afterwards the teacher asks you to explain what happened when he was gone. You explain to him what happened in detail. You say who argued and the reasons for the argument.</i></p>	Lines 98-102, 108-118
(d)	<p>Utitshala uze abohlwaya bonke abantwana. Wena ucebisa ukuba utitshala abohlwaya ngokobulungisa kwaye uxhasa uluvo lwakho.</p> <p><i>The teacher then punishes the whole class. You advise the teacher on a fair punishment and support your judgement.</i></p>	Lines 127-146

6.6.2 Target task 9 interactive complexity analysis

The interactive factors are classified according to a behaviour-descriptive analysis of the task description specifications as set out in section 6.6.1 (Robinson, 2010). The target task simulated dialogue includes interactions between the teacher and the whole class, as well as between the teacher and specific learners. (See appendix 9 for the complete dialogue.) The interactive complexity analysis only considers the interactional demands of the learners' speech turns in the segments that pertain to the task description specifications, as indicated in the table above, in section 6.6.1. The conflict situation (lines 65-97 in target task 9's simulated dialogue), which commences when the teacher had left the class, does not form part of the task description specifications in the table, but it is considered important for the class monitor's report in subtask

(c). Furthermore, the conflict concerns an argument between the learners about the use of another learner's stationary, directly relating to the interaction described in subtask (b).

In subtask (a) *Your friend asks about the class assignment and you explain the teacher's instructions*, interactional demands are made by [- open solution], but the interactive complexity is low due to [+ one-way flow, + convergent solution, + few contributions needed, + negotiation not needed]. In subtask (b) *You ask to use a couple of your friend's crayons. She agrees and gives you the crayon, but sometimes refuses when she is still using it at that moment. When you return the crayon, your friend tells you where to put her crayons*, the interactive complexity increases with more interactional demands made by [- one-way flow, - few contributions needed, - negotiation not needed].

In subtask (c) and (d) an interactant demand is made by [- equal status and role] as the task interaction is between the teacher and a child. Subtask (c) *Afterwards the teacher asks you to explain what happened when he was gone. You explain to him what happened in detail. You say who argued and the reasons for the argument*, presents interactional demands with [- open solution, - few contributions], but the interactive complexity is moderated by [+ one-way flow, + convergent solution, + few participants, + negotiation not needed]. In subtask (d) *The teacher then punishes the whole class. You advise the teacher on a fair punishment and support your judgement*, the interactional demands include [- one-way flow, - convergent solution, - negotiation not needed].

In summary, the interactive complexity is low for subtask (a), but much higher for subtask (b) and (d). In subtasks (c) the interactive complexity is moderated by the variable [+ one-way flow, + few participants].

6.6.3 Target task 9 cognitive complexity analysis

The cognitive complexity for target task 9 is described as cognitive demands made by Robinson's (2010) resource-directing and resource-dispersing variables. The analysis is informed by the target task description specifications as presented in section 6.6.1.

Subtask (a) is positive for all the resource-dispersing variables exhibiting low complexity in the performative dimension. Considering that the instructions were explained earlier, the information-giver had time to process the information before repeating it to the interlocutor [+ planning time, + prior knowledge]. In the developmental dimension, conceptual demands are made with the resource-directing variables [- here-and-now, + intentional reasoning.]

Subtask (b) presents more than one task [- single task] with interactants completing the assignment while borrowing/lending stationary. The resource-dispersing variables include [- few steps, - independency of steps], increasing the cognitive demands, as approval of the task participant's requests to use a colour depends on the availability thereof. Within the conceptual dimension, the cognitive demands are high with [- few elements, + intentional reasoning, + causal reasoning, + spatial reasoning].

Subtask (c) and (d) each presents a single task, but requires [- few steps, - independency of steps], as these procedural demands include describing the incident step-by-step and supporting the argument, respectively. In subtask (c) cognitive complexity is high due to [- here-and-now, + causal reasoning, + intentional reasoning]. In subtask (d) the conceptual demands are lower with [+ here-and-now], however the other resource-directing variables remain the similar as in subtask (c), but also include [+ perspective-taking].

To summarize, the cognitive complexity is low in the performative dimension of subtask (a), but higher in subtasks (b), (c) and (d). The conceptual demands are considerable throughout all the subtasks, but especially in subtask (b).

6.6.4 Target task 9 linguistic complexity analysis

An investigation is conducted into the task-natural linguistic expressions as illustrated in the simulated dialogue of target task 9. (See appendix 9.) The conceptualizations required by the cognitive demands, which were identified in section 6.6.3, afford complexity in lexis, grammar and syntax.

In the target task, the task participants have already been instructed and share prior knowledge regarding the assignment at hand. The segments in the dialogue representing subtask (a) are mixed-up with dialogue interaction representing subtask (b). The interaction between the participants in subtask (a) is spurred on by uncertainty regarding the assignment, seeking confirmation of knowledge in terms of the teacher's instructions:

Z: **Sikhalarishe iintolo zibe njani?** (line 41)

S: **Sizikhalarishe zibe bomvu.** (line 43)

In the conceptual dimension, the resource-directing variables [- few elements, + intentional reasoning] are evident in this segment of dialogue. The information-seeker (Z)'s question sentence has two clauses. The main clause **sikhalarishe** is in the subjunctive mood, expressing the interrogative sentence (*must we*). The class 10 noun prefix **iin-** indicates a plural noun, the

sentence object **iintolo**, which has agreement with the copulative verb **ba** in the subjunctive mood, denoting objective or intentional reasoning. The information-giver (S)'s utterance is also complex with both clauses in the subjunctive mood. In the main clause, the subjunctive mood expresses necessity or obligation, and the subordinate clause with the copulative verb **ba** denotes objective or intentional reasoning, taking a nominal relative complement. The interactant's reply does not contain the overt object noun, instead the class 10 noun object concord is used without its head and the concord **zi-** functions as a pronoun.

Z: Utheni utitshala sinakho ukubhala iileyibhile ngeekhrayoni? (line 55)

S: Hayi, uthe utitshala kufuneka sizibhale ngepensile qha! (line 57)

In this segment of dialogue, the information-seeker (Z) enquires from the information-giver (S), who clarifies the instructions that the teacher gave earlier [- here-and-now]. The resulting conceptualizations are complex with multiclausal sentences. The interactant (Z)'s question sentence consists of three clauses. The main clause has the subject inverted with the past tense verb in the indicative mood, forming a compound with the interrogative **-ni**, denoting cause. The prepositional phrase with **na** appears as complement of a copulative verb with the locative pronoun **kho**, used with the infinitive **ukubhala**, to denote permissiveness. The third clause is the infinitive appearing with the object and prepositional noun phrase with **nga**. The interactant (S)'s response has three clauses. She responds with negation **hayi**, the past tense indicative mood, the inverted subject, the indicative mood neutropassive verb **kufuneka**, which takes the subjunctive mood complement and prepositional noun phrase, denoting obligation. The exclamation **qha!** provides emphasis.

The segments of interaction that represent subtask (a) include nouns (4), verbs (4), an adjective (1) and adverbs (2). This limited lexical productivity is due to the few steps that are described. If the learner had more queries [- few steps], then the lexical complexity would be expected to increase.

In subtask (b) [- few elements, + intentional reasoning, + causal reasoning] were identified as resource-directing variables in section 6.6.3:

Siyasanga, ndicela undiboleke iikhrayoni zakho ukuze ndikhalarishe lo mzobe wam. (lines 32-33) The task participant expresses her intentions to colour in her drawing and asks politely to borrow the interlocutor's crayons. This complex sentence has three clauses. The main clause **ndicela** is in the indicative mood and the applicative **-el-** denotes purpose. It takes a subordinate

clause in the subjunctive mood. The plural noun class 10 object, **iikhrayoni**, is followed by the second person possessive pronoun that has a noun class 10 possessive agreement morpheme of the antecedent. The third clause is an imbedded subjunctive verb, which is introduced by the conjunction **ukuze** that denotes objective or intentional reasoning. The object noun phrase consists of the first position demonstrative, denoting close proximity to the speaker and definiteness, the class 3 noun without its initial vowel, as the meaning of definiteness is already expressed by the determiner, and the first person possessive pronoun that has the noun class 3 possessive agreement morpheme of the antecedent.

Mandiqale ngeentolo ngoba usasebenzisa ubhlowu. Ndicela ikhrayoni yakho ebomvu. (lines 45-46) The first sentence has two clauses and expresses intentional and causal reasoning. The first clause is in the hortative mood with **ma** denoting intention. It is followed by the prepositional noun phrase **nga-**. The second clause is introduced by the conjunction **ngoba** that denotes causal reasoning. The verb is in the indicative mood and contains the progressive **sa** morpheme and the causative affix **-is**. In the second sentence, the object noun phrase contains two phrasal nominal modifiers that are in agreement with the class 9 noun: the second person possessive pronoun and the nominal relative.

Kulungile, kodwa musa ukushiya iikhrayoni zam zithe saa edesikeni. Zibuyise engxoweni yeepensile yam ukuze zingalahleki. (lines 61-62) This complex sentence expresses spatial and intentional reasoning, and consists of 5 clauses. Consent is expressed in the first clause with the perfectum indicative mood **kulungile**, denoting state or condition. The **ku-** is in agreement with the noun class 15 nominal infinitive subject and appears without its head. It refers to the implicit argument that preceded the utterance. The second clause is the negative imperative mood **musa** used with the infinitive, and is introduced by the infinitive quantifier **kodwa** that emphasizes the condition. The third clause presents the ideophone **saa**, which is introduced by the verb **thi** in the subjunctive mood to indicate consequence. The locative noun phrase uses the affixes **e-** and **-ini** and indicates spatial reasoning. The fourth clause is the imperative, used with the object concord, and takes a locative noun phrase with a possessive descriptive noun phrase and first person possessive pronoun. The fifth clause is the imbedded negative subjunctive verb and is introduced by the conjunction **ukuze**, denoting intentional reasoning.

The lexical complexity indicates a focus on activity, but if the elements (number of colours and objects) were increased, then lexical density in terms of nouns and adjectives should reflect the conceptual demands: nouns (8), verbs (12), adjectives (3) and adverbs (3).

Subtask (c) is represented by a monologue where the task participant reports to the teacher on the class's behaviour during her absence. The conceptualization process affords [- here-and-now], as well as complex reasoning [+ causal reasoning, + intentional reasoning], when she interprets the actions and reasons for the conflict.

Abasebenzanga kwaphela, titshala, emva kokuphuma kwakho eklasini. (line 108) The sentence has two clauses. The main clause is the negative past tense indicative verb, which is followed by the adverb phrase with the preposition **kwa-**. The second clause is the sentential preposition that denotes time. It has been inverted to the final sentence position and consists of the locative class noun **emva** combining with the infinitive, which is in agreement with the second person possessive pronoun **kwakho**, and a locative noun phrase.

Khange ndabona laa nto yenzekile, kodwa kwacacile ukuba wacaphukiswa yile nto yokungenela kukaZanele uAlulutho. (lines 112-113) In this complex sentence, the interactant describes her interpretation of what caused the incident. The remote past tense subject concords **nda-**, **kwa-**, **wa-** are used [- here-and-now]. Intentions are expressed in the infinitive with the applicative **-el-**. There are five clauses. The conjunction **kodwa** indicates coordinated clauses, and the mental state verb in the indicative A-past tense, **kwacacile**, is followed by the complementizer **ukuba** and indicative A-past tense passive **-w-**, with the causative affix **-is-**. The class 1(a) subject noun **uAlulutho** is inverted, and the object noun is modified in a phrase that includes the class 9 noun copula with the demonstrative, the noun head without its initial vowel, the possessive descriptive nominal infinitive and the class 15 possessive concord **kuka-** used with the class 1 noun.

The lexical complexity analysis of subtask (c) presents nouns (7), verbs (16), an adjective (1) and adverbs (7), indicating a focus on activity.

In subtask (d) the teacher punishes the learners, using the plural imperative mood **bekani** (line 127) and the subjunctive mood to denote necessity and prohibition: **ningabhali** (line 144), **nithule** (line 127, 144), **nilale** (line 144). The task participant responds to the punishment and conceptualizes her perspective in a complex sentence: **Ayilunganga loo nto, titshala, ngoba nguAlulutho oqale yonk' into!** (line 131) The inverted subject noun phrase with the second position demonstrative **loo** refer to the previous utterance, which was the teacher's punishment

for the whole class (lines 127-128), and follow the perfectum indicative mood verb that denotes a state. The second clause is the identitive copulative clause with a proper noun complement, which is introduced by the conjunction **ngoba** denoting causal reasoning. The third clause is the verbal relative that is in agreement with the antecedent, followed by the object noun phrase, which consists of the inclusive quantifier with the noun. In this subtask, the task participant advises the teacher as to what would be a suitable punishment. This conceptualization affords [+ intentional reasoning]: **UAlulutho wasiphazamisa kwaye yena umele ukusixolisa.** (line 132) This sentence consists of two clauses. The first clause is in the indicative mood. The second clause is the deficiency verb **mele**, which takes an infinitive complement, appearing in the indicative mood, and denotes intentional reasoning. The lexical complexity consists of nouns (11), verbs (17), adjectives (3) and adverbs (4).

In summary, the linguistic complexity reflects the cognitive complexity and is high throughout the target task. In subtask (b) the linguistic complexity increases with the learners also having to use relatives and locatives afforded by the resource-directing variables that were identified in section 6.6.3.

6.6.5 Pedagogic task versions of target task 9

The previous analyses (6.6.2 - 6.6.4), along with the dialogue content, inform pedagogic decisions regarding formulaic language, focus on form, task types and the cognitive parameters used for increasing the complexity of pedagogic task versions of the target task. Specific methodological activities that focus on language form, including focus on form and teaching formulaic language, are discussed in section 7.3.2.2. In this section, pedagogic tasks are identified based on target task 9's interactive complexity analysis in section 6.6.2. Modifications to the task design features in terms of Robinson's SSARC model for the grading and sequencing of tasks from least to most complex task design are done with reference to the interactive and cognitive complexity analyses of target task 9.

Subtasks (a) and (b)'s task conditions, including a closed, convergent task solution, support information-gap task types. Subtask (a) allows only for one-way information flow, whereas subtask (b) requires more complex two-way information flow. The following diagram stages a one-way information-gap pedagogic task for giving and interpreting instructions on a cline from simple to complex with five pedagogic task versions evoking Robinson's (2010) SSARC model. During the pedagogic tasks' sequence, task participants change their roles and are both information-giver and information-receiver in the different pedagogic task versions.

A one-way information-gap task: Giving and interpreting instructions

Dimensions of Complexity	Simple 1	2	3	4	Complex 5
Few steps	+	-	-	-	-
Intentional reasoning	-	-	+	+	+
Independency of steps	+	+	+	-	-
Here-and-now	+	+	+	+	-

The task outcome is the successful completion of a school assignment following a number of interdependent steps of instruction. There is only one acceptable solution with one participant holding all the information [- open solution, + one-way flow]. The nature of the assignment is determined by the learners' age. Physical activities are effective language affordances for young learners (Hughes, 2010). For older learners the instructions may relate to their academic curriculum contents. With the first three versions of the task, each instruction presents an independent outcome, allowing task participants an opportunity to achieve success anew with every new instruction, affording positive feelings and motivation (Pinter, 2007). The simplest version is the listen-and-do task, which Ellis (2003) proposes to be effective for introducing new vocabulary to beginner learners, and is simple and stable on all dimensions performed with only a few instructions [+ few steps]. The second more complex version involves more instructions. In the third version, every instruction results in an action motivated with a particular objective [+ intentional reasoning]. With the fourth version of the instruction task, the task instructions follow on one another as part of a procedure to achieve a final outcome [- independency of steps], which is also motivated by an overarching purpose [+ intentional reasoning]. In the final version of the instruction task, one group of learners execute the task and then tell their partners what their instructions were and why it was necessary, in order for their partners to execute the same task [- here-and-now].

In subtask (c) the participation variables [+ one-way flow, - open solution, - few contributions, + negotiation not needed] are compatible with a narrative pedagogic task type. The closed, convergent solution for the pedagogic task is the detailed description of an incident of unacceptable behaviour in the classroom, including a report of who were involved and the reasons for the incident. The cognitive complexity analysis in section 6.6.3 identified an increase in conceptual demands with resource-directing variables [- here-and-now, + causal

reasoning, + intentional reasoning], however reasoning of this kind is expected to still be developing within the young learner's cognitive abilities, due to the complexity and abstract nature of reasoning about causation and the intentions of others (Heo, Han, Koch and Aydin, 2011). The task design can be modified increasing the cognitive complexity along the performative dimension by introducing resource-dispersing variables [- planning time, - few steps].

A narrative task: Reporting on an incident

Dimensions of Complexity	Simple 1	2	3	4	Complex 5
Planning time	+	-	-	-	-
Here-and-now	+	+	-	-	-
Few steps	+	+	+	-	-
Causal reasoning	-	-	-	-	+

The first pedagogic version of this task is simple and stable. The task participants look at one or two pictures of an incident of bad discipline in class. They are given time to work out what is happening, and then has to describe the picture. During the second version, they are given a new picture (s) of a similar incident and has to immediately describe it [- planning time]. In the third version, they are told that the incident happened the day before and that they must report on what happened [- here-and-now]. The fourth version is more complex presenting more pictures illustrating several incidents of bad behaviour unfolding over time [- few steps]. In the final version, the learners must explain what caused the incidents illustrated in the pictures [+ causal reasoning]. Robinson describes a similar target task that includes intentional reasoning, but maintains that this is a highly complex task when it involves complex reasoning about the intentions of others that led to conflicts of interests (2011a: 9-10).

In subtask (d), the divergent, open task solution is a decision on a fair punishment for an incident of bad discipline in the class. The task participants are given different information regarding the same incident to share with each other [- one-way flow]. Pedagogic task design modifications that regulate task complexity include [+/- few participants, +/- few contributions needed]. In the conceptual dimension the task variables [+ intentional reasoning, + perspective-taking] present cognitive demands (see section 6.6.3). In the performative dimension, the

resource-dispersing variables [- single task, - planning time] are introduced as task design modifications to afford automatization in terms of Robinson's (2010) SSARC model.

A reasoning-gap task: decision-making

Dimensions of Complexity	Simple 1	2	3	4	Complex 5
Single task	+	-	-	-	-
Intentional reasoning	-	-	+	+	+
Planning time	+	+	+	-	-
Perspective-taking	-	-	-	-	+

The first three task versions are based on situations of bad class discipline that the task participants were presented with priorly [+ planning time]. The first pedagogic task version is simple and stable. The task participants are familiar with the situation and have to choose an appropriate punishment from a number of given options [+ single task]. During the second version, the task participants are given a different, but familiar example of misbehaviour and asked to come up with a suitable punishment [- single task]. During the third version, the interactants must declare the punishment in relation to the transgression/transgressor(s) [+ intentional reasoning]. During the fourth pedagogic task version, the task participants are given a new situation and are required to directly describe a suitable punishment [- planning time]. The fifth version introduces maximum complexity by asking the learners to comment on their peers' decisions, motivate and amend the punishments when they feel it is unfair [+ perspective-taking].

In summary, the complexity analysis of target task 9 made explicit subcomponents with core task features and matching task types. It indicated that subtask (a) makes the least interactive and cognitive demands, but the task complexity may be regulated with the variables [+/- few elements, +/- few contributions] needed. Subtask (b) represents complex interactive factors, as well as making cognitive demands. The target task complexity analysis further identified a reporting task (c) and decision-making task (d), which become cognitively highly complex when complex reasoning is introduced. Learners' ability to cognitively process these complex reasoning demands, can be assessed by performing similar tasks in their L1, adjusting the task's cognitive complexity according to the learners' cognitive development. Willis and Willis

suggest the use of L1 in performing similar tasks as part of the pre-task phase, familiarizing the learners with task contents and task strategies (2007:220).

6.7 TARGET TASK 12: A LESSON ON POLLUTION

Target task 11 (*healthy food*) and 12 incorporate familiar intermediate phase curriculum contents and academic skills, such as definitions, types, causes and consequences. An analysis of these tasks' contents investigates the general cognitive development that occurs and increases with linguistic development, or what Christie (2012) calls 'subject specific specialisms,' in primary school intermediate phase learning. Whereas target task 11's dialogue revolves around cooperative style learning (see appendix 10, target task 10, subtask 10b for similar cooperative learning dialogue contents), target task 12's dialogue focusses on the lesson content. Target task 11's description specifications and simulated dialogue are presented in appendix 11. A summary of target task 11 complexity analyses is recorded in table 6.1, in section 6.9.

6.7.1 Target task 12 description specifications

In this section the target task is subdivided into subtasks, each representing a separate non-linguistic outcome, with the corresponding lines of the simulated dialogue for each subtask provided in the table below. See the complete simulated dialogue for target task 12 in appendix 12.

(a) Utitshala wakho ubulisa abafundi, aze abahlalise acele bakhuphe iipensile zabo nokuvula iincwadi zesifundo. (b) Wena uboleka ipensile kutitshala, ngoba eyakho ilahlekile. Oku akakuthandi utitshala, nangona esaboleka ipensile, kwaye wena uvumele ukungxolisa kwakhe. (c) Utitshala ufundisa abafundi ngongcoliseko neendidi zongcoliseko ezikhoyo. Utitshala ubuza imizekelo yongcoliseko yasedolophini yabo kubafundi. Baze baxecele iindawo ezimdaka abazaziyo. (d) Wena nomfundi ohlala kunye nawe edesikeni, nincokola ngemifanekiso yasencwadini yesifundo. Nichonga imifanekiso nize nichaze iindidi zongcoliseko. (e) Utitshala ubuza unobangela neziphumo zongcoliseko ezinengozi. Abafundi abambalwa bayamphendula. (f) Wena nomhlobo wakho nithetha ngeendlela zokuqoqosha inkunkuma. Uchazela umhlobo wakho indlela enobuchule yokuphinda usebenzise inkukuma ukuze wakhe into entle.

(a) *Your teacher greets the learners and asks them to sit down and to take out their books and pencils. (b) You ask to borrow a pencil from the teacher, because you've lost yours. Although*

she lends you a pencil, she tells you to bring your own pencil to school and you consent to her reproof. (c) The teacher teaches the children about pollution and the different types of pollution. The teacher asks the learners for examples of pollution in their town and they tell her about dirty places that they've seen. (d) You and the student who shares a desk with you, discuss the pictures in your textbook. Referring to specific pictures, you identify the types of pollution. (e) Your teacher asks you what causes pollution and what some of the dangerous consequences are. A few learners answer him. (f) You and your friend talk about ways to reduce litter. You describe to your partner some crafty ways to recycle rubbish.

Subtasks	Task description specifications	Corresponding lines in target task simulation
(a)	Utitshala wakho ubulisa abafundi, aze abahlalise acele bakhuphe iipensile zabo nokuvula iincwadi zesifundo. <i>Your teacher greets the learners and asks them to sit down and to take out their books and pencils.</i>	Lines 24-31, 76-81
(b)	Wena uboleka ipensile kutitshala, ngoba eyakho ilahlekile. Oku akakuthandi utitshala, nangona esaboleka ipensile, kwaye wena uvumele ukungcolisa kwakhe. <i>You ask to borrow a pencil from the teacher, because yours is lost. Although she lends you a pencil, she tells you to bring your own pencil to school and you consent to her reproof.</i>	Lines 32-41
(c)	Utitshala ufundisa abafundi ngongcoliseko neendidi zongcoliseko ezikhoyo. Utitshala ubuza imizekelo yongcoliseko yasedolophini yabo kubafundi. Baze baxebele iindawo ezimdaka abazaziyo. <i>The teacher teaches the children about pollution and the different types of pollution. The teacher asks the learners for examples of pollution in their town and they tell her about dirty places that they've seen.</i>	Lines 42-62/64
(d)	Wena nomfundi ohlala kunye nawe edesikeni, nincokola ngemifanekiso yasencwadini yesifundo. Nichonga imifanekiso nize nichaze iindidi zongcoliseko. <i>You and the student who shares a desk with you, discuss the pictures in your textbook. Referring to specific pictures, you identify the types of pollution.</i>	Lines 70-72/74-75, 82-95
(e)	Utitshala ubuza unobangela neziphumo zongcoliseko ezinengozi. Abafundi abambalwa bamphendula utitshala.	Lines 61-70/73, 96-117/119-120

(f)	<p><i>Your teacher asks you what causes pollution and what some of the dangerous consequences are. A few learners answer him.</i></p> <p>Wena nomhlobo wakho nithetha ngeendlela zokuqoqosha inkunkuma. Uchazela umhlobo wakho indlela enobuchule yokuphinda usebenzise inkukuma ukuze wakhe into entle.</p> <p><i>You and your friend talk about ways to reduce litter. You describe to your partner some crafty ways to recycle rubbish.</i></p>	<p>Lines 117-118, 120-135</p>
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6.7.2 Target task 12 interactive complexity analysis

The target task dialogue simulates classroom interaction during a content subject lesson and includes teacher talk, whole class participation, individual learner interaction with the teacher and pair work amongst the learners. The interactive complexity analysis investigates the participation variables that make interactional demands on the learners (Robinson, 2010). In subtasks 12(a), (b), (c) and (e) the learner(s) communicates with the teacher and the interactive demands also include [- equal status and role].

In subtask (a) *Your teacher greets the learners and asks them to sit down and to take out their books and pencils*, interactional demands are made by [- open solution, - few participants]. However, the interactive complexity is very low during this subcomponent due to [+ one-way flow, + few contributions]. During subtask (b) *You ask to borrow a pencil from the teacher, because you've lost yours. Although she lends you a pencil, she tells you to bring your own pencil to school and you consent to her reproof*, the interactive complexity increases moderately with [- one-way flow], but remains low with limited learner interaction [+ few contributions, + convergent solutions, + negotiation not needed].

In subtask (c) *The teacher teaches the children about pollution and the different types of pollution. The teacher asks the learners for examples of pollution in their town and they tell her about dirty places that they've seen*, the interactive complexity increases with [- one-way flow, - convergent solution, - few participants, - few contributions]. Subtask (e) *Your teacher asks you what causes pollution and what some of the dangerous consequences are. A few learners answer him*, makes similar interactional demands, except for [+ one-way flow, + few contributions needed].

Subtask (d) *You and the student who shares a desk with you, discuss the pictures in your textbook. Referring to specific pictures, you identify the types of pollution*, presents high

interactive complexity by demanding [- open solution, - one-way flow, - few contributions needed, - negotiation not needed]. The pair work continues in subtask (f), *You and your friend talk about ways to reduce litter. You describe to your partner some crafty ways to recycle rubbish*, but more interactional demands are made with only [- one-way flow, - convergent solution] contributing to the higher interactive complexity during the first part of this subtask. The second part of subtask (f) presents mostly [+ one-way flow, + convergent solution] and are interactively less complex.

In summary, the interactive complexity is low during subtasks (a), (b), (e) and (f), but more complex in subtask (c) and (d).

6.7.3 Target task 12 cognitive complexity analysis

The cognitive complexity of the different subtasks of target task 12 is based on an information-theoretic analysis of the cognitive demands as described by Robinson's (2010) resource-directing and resource-dispersing variables. The analysis is informed by the task description specifications as they pertain to the learners' performances presented in the dialogue contents.

Subtask (a) demands comprehension of intentional and spatial reasoning in the conceptual dimension. In the performative dimension the learners have to greet and prepare for the lesson [- single task]. This introduction to the lesson includes a procedure with [- independency of steps], as they have to take out the required books and open it on the correct pages. Subtask (b) makes very little procedural demands, but demands conceptualizations with [+ causal reasoning, + intentional reasoning].

In subtask (c), the learners need to comprehend the new concepts introduced by the teacher, and incorporate new information with prior knowledge in order to give examples from their own experiences [- single task]. During the learner production, the resource-directing variables [- here-and-now, - few elements, + spatial reasoning, + causal reasoning] present cognitive demands. During subtask (d), the cognitive complexity decreases as learners work in pairs with the pictures ensuring [+ here-and-now, + task structure], but there are performative demands made by [- independency of steps], as well as conceptual demands made by [- few elements, + spatial reasoning, + causal reasoning].

In subtask (e), the learner performances are scaffolded by the teacher [+ task structure] as they conceptualize the causes and results of pollution [+ causal reasoning, + perspective-taking]. In

subtask (f), the learners work in pairs and the cognitive complexity is high with [- few elements, + intentional reasoning, + perspective-taking].

Summarizing this section, the cognitive complexity is lower during subtask (a) and (b), with learners mainly required to comprehend and conceptualize some intentional reasoning. In subtask (c) the cognitive complexity increases, and remains considerable however less in subtasks (d) and (e). In subtask (f) the cognitive complexity is high.

6.7.4 Target task 12 linguistic complexity analysis

Robinson (2010) proposes a cognitive-linguistic interface where resource-directing variables make conceptual demands, affording linguistic complexities in terms of specific measures, including more verb tenses, deictic expressions, mental state verbs and complementary sub-clauses. The simulated dialogue contents of a content classroom lesson in the primary school intermediate phase illustrate task-natural language contents, informing the linguistic complexity analysis in terms of these specific measures and more general syntactic and lexical complexity measures. (See appendix 12 for the complete dialogue.)

In subtask (a), the teacher starts the lesson by greeting the learners and giving them instructions to prepare for the lesson. The instructions include references to spatial reasoning, such as **kwiphepha** (line 29), **kwisifundo** (line 29) and **iphi** (line 76). However, the teacher's instructions are primarily aimed at organizing the learners and clearly express her intentions for the lesson.

Hlalani phantsi, nikhuphe iincwadi neepensile zenu. Vulani iincwadi zenu kwiphepha le-17 kwisifundo songcoliseko. (lines 28-29) The first sentence consists of two clauses. The main clause, in the imperative mood, expresses the command, with the affix **-ni** denoting plurality. The subordinate clause is in the subjunctive mood expressing consecutive actions, and takes coordinated objects with the conjunct **na**, which are in agreement with the second person plural possessive pronoun through the class 10 plural noun possessive concord **za-**. The second sentence is monoclausal and in the imperative mood, but takes two adverb locative noun phrases, both of which are nominally modified with descriptive possessive nouns. Receptive knowledge of the lexical elements is essential for the successful completion of this task component: nouns (6), verbs (3) and adverbs (2).

In subtask (b), the task participant politely requests to borrow a pencil from the teacher (line 32), and when the teacher reprimands him, he assures her that it will not happen again (line 40).

This interaction presents firstly positive and then negative intentional reasoning. In line 32, the learner explains the reason for having to borrow a pencil [+ causal reasoning]. These cognitive factors are expressed in complex clauses:

Ndicela undiboleke ipensile, titshala, ngoba eyam ilahlekile. (line 32) There are three clauses: a main clause in the indicative mood, followed by the subordinate subjunctive mood, denoting positive intentional reasoning. The third clause is introduced by the conjunction **ngoba**, denoting causal reasoning, with the perfectum indicative mood expressing a condition or state and appearing without its head. The possessive pronoun **eyam** is made emphatic through an emphatic **a**.

andinakuphinda ndiyilibale (line 40) These two clauses express negative intentional reasoning. The deficiency verb **phinda** appears in the infinitive mood with the negative copulative verb and **na**, and is followed by the subjunctive mood clause.

The focus in this subtask is still on activity, as the lexical complexity analysis indicate: nouns (3), verbs (7) and adverbs (3).

In subtask (c), the teacher asks the task participants to demonstrate their understanding of the topic by giving examples from their own experiences: **Nikhe nalubona ungcoliseko kwidolophu yenu?** (lines 43-44) The deficiency verb **khe** has the meaning *once* and is followed by the consecutive mood in the past tense [- here-and-now]. The adverb locative noun phrase takes the locative preposition **kwi-** [+ spatial reasoning].

Nam, titshala, ndakhe ndalubona kwizitalato zasedolophini, ingakumbi ekuseni ngeCawa. (lines 53-54) The task participant's response echoes the teacher's question, priming the use of the deficiency verb **khe** in the remote past tense and locative noun phrases expressing place and time. (See section 4.3.2.) The quantifier takes the preposition **nga** and the locative preposition **ku** to form the emphatic adverb **ngakumbi** (*especially*), while the preposition **nga** is also used for the temporal expression, **ngeCawa**.

Ewe, titshala, ndibone izinto ezimdaka ezifana neeplastiki, iibhotile neenkonkxa emlanjeni nasedameni lasedolophini emva koMacDonalds. (lines 47-48) The interactant uses the past tense indicative mood [- here-and-now] and the relative mood to describe examples of pollution [- few elements]. The main clause takes the object noun phrase with a nominal relative modifier. The comparative verbal relative clause, **ezifana**, uses the preposition **na** with the noun complement. The conjunct **na** is used in the list of elements, as well as with

the coordinated locative noun phrase. Spatial reasoning is conceptualized through locative affixes **e-** and **-ini**, the locative noun **emva**, and the locative possessive concord **kwa** that is used with the nouns.

Ngamanye amaxesha, abantu batshisa amatayara elokishini, awungcolise umoya, titshala, ube umnyama. (lines 58-59) The interactant uses consecutive actions to express the human actions that result in pollution [+ causal reasoning]. The preposition **nga** is used with the quantifier to form the temporal adverb noun phrase. The indicative mood main clause is the intransitive verb used with the causative affix **-is-** allowing an object, which is followed by the locative noun phrase. The second and third clauses use the subjunctive mood, expressing the consequences through consecutive actions.

The information orientation (Ishakawa, 2015) of the dialogue text is evident in the subtasks' lexical complexity analysis. This is in response to the task demands and the content classroom context that present specific curriculum-orientated conceptual demands. Subtask (c) has nouns (18), verbs (8), adjectives (3) and adverbs (9).

In subtask (d), the teacher instructs the task participants to identify examples of pollution in the pictures and then to identify the type of pollution [- independency of steps]. (See lines 70-72.) The sentential temporal preposition **xa** with the subjunctive mood verb **nijonge**, which denotes necessity, present the preliminary condition. This is followed by two instructions expressed through the plural imperative: **khethani** (line 70) and **xoxani** (line 71).

The interactants have to look at and specify a number of pictures, and identify one of a number of different types of pollution [- few elements]. This is conceptualized through the use of descriptive compound nouns and locative nouns: **Umzi-mveliso ungcolisa umlambo. Lungcoliseko lwamanzi olu olomfanekiso lokuqala.** (lines 82-83) The first sentence is a monoclausal sentence, where the subject is a compound noun and also the causative agent. The causative affix **-is-** denotes causal reasoning. The second sentence is also monoclausal, but nominal phrasal elaboration points towards advance linguistic cognitive development with a copulative verb used with a possessive descriptive compound noun. The determiner, a first position demonstrative follows the noun to express emphasis, and is followed by the possessive descriptive noun without its head, using the definite **a**. The possessive concord is also used with the numeral infinitive that presents the second nominal modifier. Spatial reasoning is conceptualized through the locative noun demonstrative **apha** (line 85) and locative noun

phrases, like **esitalatweni** (line 85) and **emfanekisweni** (line 94). The lexical complexity indicates the dominance of nouns (13) with fewer verbs (5) and adverbs (3).

In subtask (e), the teacher asks the task participants what causes littering (see line 97), and a task participant answers in a monoclausal sentence with reference to the concrete evidence presented in the picture. Additionally, the teacher scaffolds their reasoning and pushes them to complex causal reasoning and perspective-taking, which are conceptualized in multiclausal sentences:

Yinto yokuba ayikho imigqomo yeenkunkuma. (line 104) There are two clauses. The sentential preposition **yinto yokuba** denotes cause and constitute the first clause with the copulative verb. The complement clause is the negative existential copulative **ayikho**, which is also in the indicative mood.

Mna, ndicinga ukuba kungenxa yokungakhathali nje, titshala. (line 108) This complex sentence consists of three clauses. The mental state verb **cinga** presents the interactant's perspective. The indicative mood complement clause is introduced by the complementizer **ukuba**, followed by the copulative form **kungenxa** with the subjectival concord **ku**, which denotes causal reasoning, taking a negative infinitive complement with the possessive descriptive preposition **ya**.

Yingozi, titshala, ngoba umntwana angasikwa yiglas elunyaweni kwaye ikhangeleka imbi idolophu yethu. (lines 112-113) There are four clauses. The first clause is the copulative with an identificative function. The second clause is introduced by the conjunction **ngoba**, denoting causal reasoning, and is the passive verb **-w-** in the potential **nga** followed by the copulative phrase, denoting the agent, and the locative noun phrase. The third and fourth clauses are introduced by the conjunction **kwaye**, followed by the indicative mood neuterpassive **-ek-** and the copulative with a descriptive adjectival complement.

The lexical productivity and density analysis presents: nouns (15), verbs (16), adjectives (5) and adverbs (5).

In subtask (f), the teacher asks the task participants to work in pairs and think of more than one way to reduce litter [- few elements], affording the use of plural forms, like **iindlela** (line 124), **amaphepha** (line 121), **iibhotile** (line 125) and **iipensile** (line 127). The interactants share ideas and express their perspectives [+ perspective-taking], using descriptive adjectives as complements of the adjective: **Hayi, lihle elo cebo lakho, Mfundo.** (line 133), and using a

verb **kufuneka** that express necessity, which take two subjunctive complement clauses: **Kufuneka sisebenzise umgqomo weenkunkuma, singalahli phantsi amaphepha ethu.** (lines 121-122)

Much of the speech contents of subtask (f) is presented as a monologue, with the learner describing a procedure for recycling plastic bottles through useful crafts. The conceptualizations include intentional and spatial reasoning, which result in linguistic complexity: **I-2 litha yeplastiki ndiyisika ibe yihalfu, ndize ndigcine iipensile nezinye izinto zam zokudlala phakathi ebhotileni ehalfu phezu kwedesika yasekamereni yam.** (lines 126-128) The sentence object is emphasized and presented first in the sentence as the theme. This necessitates the use of the object concord on the verb in the main clause, which is followed by a subordinate clause in the subjunctive mood, denoting objective. The third clause consists of the auxiliary verb **ze** meaning *must*, which takes a subjunctive complement. The last clause is the infinitive that forms part of a noun phrase, which includes the conjunct **na** used with the quantifier, the noun with its first person possessive pronoun and the possessive descriptive infinitive. This is followed by two adverb noun phrases that conceptualize spatial reasoning, affording the use locative nouns **phakathi** and **phezu**, which take the locative noun and locative preposition **kwa** with the noun as complements, respectively. The first person possessive pronoun, **yam**, together with the locative noun **ekamereni**, which is used with the possessive descriptive preposition **ya**, function as nominal modifiers and, therefore, have morpheme agreement with the class 9 noun.

Subtask (f)'s lexical complexity analysis presents nouns (15), verbs (12), adjectives (3) and adverbs (9).

In summary, the linguistic complexity, particularly the lexical complexity reflects the subject specific academic linguistic needs and the task demands. Subtask (a) and (b) revolves around class organization and activity, whereas subtasks (c), (d) and (f) introduce subject specific contents and processes.

6.7.5 Pedagogic task versions of target task 12

In this section, the task sequence for two pedagogic tasks are identified and modified based on the previous interactive and complexity analyses in sections 6.7.2 and 6.7.3, respectively. The task topic and dialogue contents present a regular content class lesson affording typical classroom interaction, including following instructions and taking part in discussions. As demonstrated in the cognitive complexity analysis, these language functions naturally demand

[- single task, - independency of steps, - prior knowledge] in the performative dimension, as well as [- here-and-now, - few elements, + reasoning] in the conceptual dimension. Modifications to the task design features of each pedagogic task in terms of Robinson's SSARC model are described, affording L2 development (Robinson, 2010).

Subtask (a) and part of subtask (f)'s participation variables [+ one-way flow, - open solution, + convergent solution] are suited for an instruction-giving, one-way information-gap task, however, all the other subtasks also follow instructions first presented by the teacher. The following diagram suggests modifications of pedagogic task design variables that systematically increase the cognitive complexity over five pedagogic task versions.

A one-way information-gap task: instruction-giving

Dimensions of Complexity	Simple 1	2	3	4	Complex 5
Single task	+	-	-	-	-
Intentional reasoning	-	-	+	+	+
Independency of steps	+	+	+	-	-
Here-and-now	+	+	+	+	-

The instructions in this task all incorporate to some extent spatial reasoning. The closed, convergent task outcome is the correct execution of practical instructions with an expressed purpose. The first, second and fourth task versions are listen-and-do tasks. (See section 5.5.5 for a discussion of the pedagogic benefits of this type of task.) In the first version, task participants are given a singular, simple task to perform, e.g. *take out your Life Skills textbook / list all the litter in the class's litter bin*. They first listen and then perform the instruction [+ single task]. During the second version, the performative demands are increased and task participants are given more than one task to perform directly, e.g. *Take out your Social Science textbook and open at page 76 / list the things that you throw away every day under appropriate headings, namely organic, paper, plastic and glass*. During the third task version, the interactants explain the purpose of their actions [+ intentional reasoning]. During the fourth version the task participants are divided into two groups with each group doing a different activity. They are told the purpose of the activity and is then instructed in a procedure [- independency of steps]. In the final and most complex version of the task, the interactants work

in pairs representing different activity groups. The interactants then have to describe the aim [+ intentional reasoning] and instructions of their group's activity to each other [- here-and-now].

Subtasks (c), (d), (e) and part of (f)'s participation variables describe two-way interaction resulting in a open, divergent solution based on complex reasoning processes that synthesize information, infer and deduct facts. This reasoning-gap task results from the difference between existing and new knowledge on a topic.

A reasoning-gap task: a discussion task

Dimensions of Complexity	Simple 1	2	3	4	Complex 5
Prior knowledge	+	-	-	-	-
Few elements	+	+	-	-	-
Task structure	+	+	+	-	-
Causal reasoning	-	-	-	-	+

During the first three versions of the task the task participants are given a picture or a diagram and their performances are scaffolded by the teacher [+ task structure], e.g. *a picture of a street or recreational area in town with litter and pollution*. The interactants don't share a diagram, but interact, referring to different elements in the diagram in front of them, affording [+ spatial reasoning] throughout all the task versions. The task participants are first asked to identify the familiar elements which they know from their own lives or previous lessons on the topic [+ prior knowledge], e.g. *examples of pollution*. In the second task version, the task participants are presented with new information on the topic, e.g. *different types of pollution*, and have to identify these elements [- prior knowledge]. In the third task version, a different diagram is provided with more elements that the interactants must identify [- few elements]. In the fourth version, the interactants describe as many elements as they can remember, without the help of a diagram [- task structure]. In the final, most complex version, the task participants identify and reason about the causes of the illustrated phenomena [+ causal reasoning].

Summarizing this section, target task 12 presents a typical content subject lesson where learners follow instructions, describe a procedure, synthesize new information, make inferences and deduct facts. The linguistic analysis indicates the importance of locatives and nominal phrases for meeting the tasks demands. See section 7.3 for a further discussion of focus on form with reference to this target task. The target task presented interactive and cognitive subskills with

different levels of complexity. Subtasks (a) and (b) make limited interactive and cognitive demands. Subtasks (c) and (d) are interactively and cognitively complex. Subtask (e) presents a few interactive demands, but considerable cognitive demands. Whereas subtask (f) is mainly interactively simple, but cognitively the most complex. Two pedagogic task sequences were suggested based on the interactive and cognitive analyses of the target task.

6.8 TARGET TASK 13: THE PROVINCES OF SOUTH AFRICA

This task explores a recognized topic for content subject learning in the primary school intermediate phase (*South African provinces*) and combines it with topics of social importance (*family and holidays*). The task examines the holistic, experiential nature of task-based learning by creating personal reference [+ prior knowledge] to introduce new knowledge (Cummins and Persad, 2014, Nunan, 2004). See appendix 13 for the target task's simulated dialogue along with the task description specifications.

6.8.1 Target task 13 description specifications

The target task description specifications are provided in Xhosa and English, and in the table below the corresponding lines representing each subtask in the simulated dialogue for the target task are also provided.

(a) Uza kubhala uvavanyo lweJografi ngamaphondo aseMzantsi Afrika, kodwa uyoyika ukuba uza kutshona olu vavanyo. Ubaxelela ngeenkathazo zakho abahlobo bakho ababini. (b) Nincokola ngamaphondo eniwaziyo. Nincokola ngezizalwana zenu ezihlala kwamanye amaphondo akweli lizwe. Nincokola nangeeholide zenu. Wena, khange wahamba amanye amaphondo, kodwa abahlobo bakho bakuxelela ngeeholide ebebetyelela kwamanye amaphondo aseMzantsi Afrika: amagama eedolophu, izithuthi bahamba ngazo, iindawo bahlala kuzo nezinto ebazenzileyo. Zininzi izinto ezinomdla ebazibonileyo. (c) Yakukhaliswa intsimbi yokuqala kwesikolo, ninduluka niye emigceni. Ubona ijezi yesikolo eshiyekayo, uze ubaxelele abahlobo ngayo. Umhlobo wakho uyavuya efumane ijezi yakhe. Yena uyabulela kuwe ngoncedo lwakho.

(a) *You are writing a Geography test about the South African provinces, but you are worried that you will fail the test. You tell your two friends about your fears. (b) You and your friends discuss the provinces in South Africa that you know. You talk about your relatives who stay in other provinces. You chat about your holidays. You have never travelled to other provinces, but your friends tell you about their travels to some of the provinces: it is the names of the*

towns, how they travelled, where they stayed and what they did. They saw lots of interesting things. (c) When the bell rings for the school to start, you leave and go to the lines. You see a school jersey left behind and tell your friends. Your friend is glad that she found her jersey. She thanks you for your help.)

Subtasks	Task description specifications	Corresponding lines in target task simulation
(a)	<p>Uza kubhala uvavanyo lweJografi ngamaphondo aseMzantsi Afrika, kodwa uyoyika ukuba uza kutshona olu vavanyo. Ubaxelela ngeenkathazo zakho abahlobo bakho ababini.</p> <p><i>You are writing a Geography test about the South African provinces, but you are worried that you will fail the test. You tell your two friends about your fears.</i></p>	Lines 19-35/36
(b)	<p>Nincokola ngamaphondo eniwaziyo. Nincokolo ngezizalwana zenu ezihlala kwamanye amaphondo akweli lizwe. Nincokola nangeeholide zenu. Wena, khange wahamba amanye amaphondo, kodwa abahlobo bakho bakuxelela ngeeholide ebebetyelela kwamanye amaphondo aseMzantsi Afrika: amagama eedolophu, izithuthi bahamba ngazo, iindawo bahlala kuzo nezinto ebazenzileyo. Zininzi izinto ezinomdla ebazibonileyo.</p> <p><i>You and your friends discuss the provinces in South Africa that you know. You talk about your relatives who stay in other provinces. You chat about your holidays. You have never travelled to other provinces, but your friends tell you about their travels to some of the provinces: it is the names of the towns, how they travelled, where they stayed and what they did. They saw lots of interesting things.</i></p>	Lines 35-59
(c)	<p>Yakukhaliswa intsimbi yokuqala kwesikolo, ninduluka niye emigceni. Ubona ijezi yesikolo eshiyekayo, uze ubaxelele abahlobo ngayo. Umhlobo wakho uyavuya ukuba efumane ijezi yakhe. Yena uyabulela kuwe ngoncedo lwakho.</p> <p><i>When the bell rings for the school to start, you leave and go to the lines. You see a school jersey left behind and tell your friends. Your friend is glad that she found her jersey. She thanks you for your help.</i></p>	Lines 60-70

6.8.2 Target task 13 interactive complexity analysis

In this section, the interactive complexity of the different subtasks (as described in section 6.8.1) is determined by a behaviour-descriptive analysis of the target task descriptive specifications

(Robinson, 2010). The participation variables that make interactional demands are used as measures of complexity and afford the identification of the task types, which are described in the pedagogic task versions in section 6.8.5. (See section 5.2 for a discussion of task types in task-based teaching.)

Subtask (a) *You are writing a Geography test about the South African provinces, but you are worried that you will fail the test. You tell your two friends about your fears,* makes few interactional demands [- open solution], but is simple for all the other interactional variables specified by Robinson (2010:250) [+ one-way flow, + convergent solution, + few participants, + few contributions needed, + negotiations not needed].

Subtask (b) *You and your friends discuss the provinces in South Africa that you know. You talk about your relatives who stay in other provinces. You chat about your holidays. You have never travelled to other provinces, but your friends tell you about their travels to some of the provinces: it is the names of the towns, how they travelled, where they stayed and what they did. They saw lots of interesting things,* is the main task and is comprised of each participant sharing their experiences and knowledge. There are interactional demands made by [- convergent solution, - few participants, - few contributions needed], but it maintains a moderate interactive complexity due to [+ open solution, + one-way flow, + negotiation not needed].

Subtask (c) *When the bell rings for the school to start, you leave and go to the lines. You see a school jersey left behind and tell your friends. Your friend is glad that she found her jersey. She thanks you for your help,* makes some interactional demands with [- open solution, - one-way flow, - negotiation not needed], however, the interactive complexity remains moderate due to [+ convergent solution, + few participants, + few contributions needed].

In summary, subtask (a) presents low interactive complexity, but in subtask (b) the interactive complexity increases mainly due to the greater number of participants and contributions. In subtask (c) the task design with two-way interaction negotiating a closed solution makes interactional demands.

6.8.3 Target task 13 cognitive complexity analysis

The cognitive complexity for target task 13 is investigated within the target task description specifications in terms of Robinson's cognitive factors (2010: 250). Robinson's (2010) resource-directing and resource-dispersing variables are used as indicators of complexity, describing the cognitive demands of the task on the participants.

In subtask (a), the interactant describes a future event (the test) and her feelings about it, affording complex conceptualizations with [- here-and-now, + causal reasoning, + perspective-taking]. However, the cognitive complexity is low in the performative dimension with [+ planning time, + single task, + few steps, + prior knowledge].

In subtask (b), the cognitive complexity is higher in the performative dimension with [- planning time, - few steps]. In the conceptual dimension, the cognitive complexity is very high with a number of resource-directing variables demanding the task participants' attention, including [- here-and-now, - few elements, + spatial reasoning, + intentional reasoning, + perspective-taking].

Subtask (c) presents cognitive complexity in the performative dimension with [- single task, - few steps, - independency of steps], while making conceptual demands with [+ spatial reasoning, + intentional reasoning]. However, the cognitive complexity is moderated by the resource-directing variable [+ few elements].

In summary, the cognitive complexity is moderate in subtasks (a) and (c), but high in subtask (b).

6.8.4 Target task 13 linguistic complexity analysis

The linguistic complexity of target task 13 is afforded by the cognitive factors identified in section 6.8.3. An analysis of complex morphosyntactic structures for each subtask in the corresponding lines of the simulated dialogue of target task 13 (see section 6.8.1) examines how the conceptualizations required by the cognitive demands afford complexity in lexis, grammar and syntax. (See appendix 13 for a complete transcription of the target task dialogue.)

In subtask (a), attentional resources are directed by the variables [- here-and-now], as is evident in the use of different verb tenses, including future tense (**ndiza kutshona**, line 24), simple past tense, (**sifunde**, line 29) and the remote compound past tense (**sasisesiwafundile**, line 33), also [+ causal reasoning], which affords complex sentences with conjunctions that denote cause (**ngoba**, line 23), and [+ perspective-taking] that is expressed through adjectives (**maninzi**, line 30 and **incinci**, line 33) as well as by complex coordinated sentences with conjunctions denoting conditions for restraint or exclusion (**kodwa**, line 23).

Complex reasoning affords the use of mental state verbs with complementary subclauses: **YiJografi. Ndiyaxhalabile ngoba ndiyokubhala uvavanyo namhlanje, kodwa ndiza kutshona, nyani!** (lines 23-24) The first sentence is monoclausal with the noun class 9

copulative prefix in the indicative mood. The second sentence is complex with three clauses in the indicative mood. The main clause is the perfect verb expressing a mental state. The second clause is introduced by the conjunction **ngoba**, and has a contracted future tense verb taking a direct object and a prepositional phrase with **na** that acts as an adverb of time. The third clause is introduced by the conjunction **kodwa**, followed by the future tense verb with the adverb **nyani** providing emphasis in manner. The lexical complexity analysis presents nouns (6), verbs (9), adjectives (3) and adverbs (6).

In subtask (b), the resource directing variable [- here-and-now] affords the use of temporal expressions with the preposition **nga**, such as **ngoDisemba ogqithileyo** (line 37), **ngo-2013** and **ngeKrisimesi** (line 42), as well as the use of different tenses. This cognitive demand is reinforced by the resource-directing variable [+ spatial reasoning], affording maximum complexity with opportunities for expressing place, motion and manner with locative prepositions **kwa-** and **ku-** (e.g. **kwaFourways**, line 38, **kwaMashu**, line 43, **kumkhuluwa**, line 38), locative affixes **e-** and **-ini** (e.g. **eThekwini**, lines 42 and 43, **eWaterfront**, line 56, **elalini yaseGqogqodala**, line 49), locative demonstratives (e.g. **phaya**, line 39) and motion verbs (e.g. **ndahamba**, line 42, **saqubha**, line 44, **ndityelele**, line 48, **ndaya**, line 55).

The resource-directing variable [- few elements] affords the use of adjectives making distinctions between similar elements, as well as the preposition **na**, which denotes association: **Sasihlala ehotele enkulu kunye notata nomama nomntakwethu**. (lines 57-58) The verb is in the remote past compound tense and is followed by a locative noun phrase with the adjective **enkulu** functioning as nominal modifier, as well as a second adverb phrase introduced by the quantifier **nye**, taking the noun class 15 prefix **ku-** and complemented by **na** prepositional phrases.

Perspective-taking is conceptualized through nominal relatives and quantifiers: **Kwakumnandi kakhulu eThekwini, ngakumbi ngaselwandle**. (line 43) The copulative verb takes the nominal relative as a complement and the existential morpheme expresses tense in the remote compound prefix **kwaku-**. The adverbial affix **ka-** introduces the adverb phrase derived from the adjective **khulu**, followed by the locative noun that acts as a second adverb. The third adverb phrase is the quantifier **mbi**, taking the class 15 noun prefix **ku-** and is introduced by the preposition **nga**, denoting emphasis, followed by a second locative noun phrase introduced by the preposition **nga**, which has the meaning of *in the vicinity of*.

Intentional reasoning is expressed in the following complex sentence with three clauses: **Nam ndinomnqweno wokuya eKapa emva kokuphumelela iMatriki.** (lines 50-51) The main clause is introduced by the prepositional phrase **na** taking a first person singular pronoun, and is the copulative verb, which takes a prepositional phrase **na** with the noun phrase as complement, and has a possessive interpretation, expressing a mental state of *desire*. The noun phrase is modified with a possessive descriptive infinitive complement, expressing motion, and is followed by the locative noun phrase. The third clause is the locative noun **emva** with its possessive preposition **kwa**, which takes a infinitive complement. The intransitive verbal infinitive has a dubble applicative **-el-** affix, presenting the direct object with the feature of *purpose* or *intention*.

Subtask (b) has nouns (18), verbs (12), adjectives (5) and adverbs (17). The high lexical density indicates the information orientation of this subtask.

In subtask (c), the higher complexity in the performative dimension combines with the resource-directing variables [+ spatial reasoning, + intentional reasoning] and result in complex syntactic structures:

Khawulezani, tshomi, singafiki leyithi emigceni! (line 62) The first clause is the imperative mood plural verb, and the second clause is the subjunctive mood negative verb expressing a polite prohibition.

Yekabani laa jezi ishiyekileyo? (line 64) The main clause is the noun class 9 copula **Y-**, which appears with the noun class 1 possessive preposition **ka** and question word **bani**. The subject is inverted and appears with the determiner, which makes the definite **a** redundant and, consequently, absent in the verbal relative clause.

Hayi, andiyazi, kuba asiyoyam. (line 66) The conjunction **kuba** denotes causal reasoning in these coordinated clauses in the indicative mood. The first clause presents the negative mental state verb, and the second clause is the negative copulative verb with the possessive pronoun. In both clauses the noun class 9 object clitic is used without the head.

Despite the cognitive complexity of subtask (c), the lexical productivity remains limited due to [+ few elements], resulting in the lexical complexity analysis presenting only nouns (4), verbs (8) and adverbs (3).

In summary, the linguistic complexity for subtasks (a) and (c) are moderated by the conceptual variable [+ few elements], but subtask (b)'s syntactic and lexical complexity is high and reflect the cognitive task demands afforded by the task design and task outcome.

6.8.5 Pedagogic task versions of target task 13

This section interprets the target task in terms of Robinson's (2010) SSARC model, presenting pedagogic task versions for the three subtasks identified in section 6.8.1. Pedagogic task design features correlate with the complexity factors identified in sections 6.8.2 and 6.8.3. Five task versions are discussed for each pedagogic task, ranging from least to most complex.

Subtask (a)'s interactive factors include one-way information flow resulting in an open but convergent task outcome, namely the information-giver sharing information regarding a class test with the interlocutor. The cognitive factors making attentional demands include [- here and now, + perspective-taking]. In section 6.8.4, the limited lexical complexity was expressed as a function of the amount of familiar, shared information. In the following diagram these variables are manipulated across a task sequence that gradually increases the task complexity.

A one-way information-gap task: Sharing information regarding a class test

Dimensions of Complexity	Simple 1	2	3	4	Complex 5
Prior knowledge	+	-	-	-	-
Few elements	+	+	-	-	-
Planning time	+	+	+	-	-
Perspective-taking	-	-	-	-	+

During the first version of this task, the dimension of complexity draws on simple and stable interlanguage as task participants share information regarding an upcoming class test. Task participants are given planning time to identify the subject and date of the test [+ planning time, + prior knowledge, - here-and-now]. The second version still allows for planning time, but the information-giver is given information regarding a new, upcoming test to share with the interlocutor [- prior knowledge]. The third task version requires more information to be shared, including dates for different tests and what to learn [- few elements]. During the fourth version, task interactants are given new information to share directly without planning time. In the final

version, the task participants describe information regarding upcoming tests, as well as their views regarding the work to be learnt for the test [+ perspective-taking].

In subtask (b), the task participants share their knowledge of the country's provinces with reference to their experiences within some of South Africa's provinces. Every interactant describes impromptu their experiences [+ one-way, + open solution, + negotiation not needed, - convergent solution] through several contributions [- few contributions]. The task outcome is the recount of a holiday experience describing time, place and motion.

A narrative task: My holiday

Dimensions of Complexity	Simple 1	2	3	4	Complex 5
Planning time	+	-	-	-	-
Here-and-now	+	+	-	-	-
Few steps	+	+	+	-	-
Intentional reasoning	-	-	-	-	+

During the first version of the task, the dimensions of complexity are simple and stable. The task participants have time to plan a report on a holiday and cut out or draw pictures to illustrate the place and activities. They work in pairs, referring to the pictures as they narrate [+ here-and-now]. During the second version, the interactants are asked to present their holiday to a group [- planning time]. The third pedagogic task is performed in pairs, narrating the holiday without the picture references [- here-and-now]. For the fourth version, the interactants name the different provinces and towns that they were told about in their groups, where they stayed, how they traveled and interesting things seen or done [- few steps]. During the last version, the interactants describe one of the holidays or places they heard of from other task participants which they would like to visit [+ intentional reasoning].

In subtask (c), the interactional demands [- one-way flow, - open solution, - negotiation not needed] indicate a two-way information-gap task with a convergent task outcome of identifying and returning a lost item or belonging to the interlocutor. The cognitive and procedural demands [+ spatial reasoning, - single task, - independency of steps] are moderated by the cognitive factor [+ few elements] (see section 6.8.3). Modifications to the task design features allow for a jigsaw puzzle with increasingly complex pedagogic task versions where the task

solution is the identification of similarities and differences in the diagrams presented to task participants.

A two-way information-gap: a jigsaw puzzle

Dimensions of Complexity	Simple 1	2	3	4	Complex 5
Few steps	+	-	-	-	-
Few elements	+	+	-	-	-
Independency of steps	+	+	+	-	-
Spatial reasoning	-	-	-	-	+

For this task, the task participants work in groups of two or more and are presented with different diagrams of the same playground or classroom. The task objective is for the group members to identify all the elements on the different diagrams. In the first version, the task participants list the items on their diagram, comparing their lists and identifying which items they need [+ few steps]. In the second version, the interactants take turns to describe the items on their diagrams, they are not allowed to look at the other participants' diagrams or lists, and have to listen to the other task participants' lists of items to identify where they may find their lost belonging. When a task participant recognizes a group member with an item that they don't have, they identify the object as theirs, claim it and thank them for finding their missing item [- few steps]. The third version presents more items and lost belongings [- few elements]. The fourth diagram includes a number of characters. The learners must identify the missing items and match them to one of the characters on their diagrams, e.g. the teacher, the boy, a girl, the dog etc. [- independency of steps]. In the last version, maximum complexity is introduced, as the learners have to identify the lost belonging and complete the diagrams by drawing the missing item in the correct place [+ spatial reasoning], affording restructuring of knowledge and automatization of existing knowledge.

Summarizing this section, the interactive and cognitive demands of the three subtasks were applied to three pedagogic tasks, including a one-way information-gap task, a narrative task and a two-way information gap task, with increasingly more complex versions that afford language development. Subtask (b) presents greater interactive and cognitive complexity than subtasks (a) and (c), as well as greater lexical complexity validating the information orientation of the task.

6.9 A SUMMARY OF THE COMPLEXITY DIMENSIONS OF THE TARGET TASKS

Target tasks and subtasks

1. At the tuck shop: Subtasks (a) – (e)
2. Meeting and introducing a new learner: Subtasks (a) – (f)
3. The playground task: Subtasks (a) – (d)
4. A new cellphone for my birthday: Subtasks (a) – (e)
5. The music we love: Subtasks (a) – (d)
6. My favourite television drama: Subtasks (a) – (c)
7. The soccer game: Subtasks (a) – (d)
8. A group role play: Subtasks (a) – (c)
9. Class discipline: Subtasks (a) – (d)
10. School rules: Subtasks (a) – (d)
11. Healthy food: Subtasks (a) – (d)
12. Pollution: Subtasks (a) – (f)
13. The provinces of South Africa: Subtasks (a) – (c)

Interactive complexity

- a) interactant variables:
 1. equal status and roles
- b) interactive variables:
 2. open solution
 3. one-way flow
 4. convergent solution
 5. few participants
 6. few contributions needed
 7. negotiations not needed

Cognitive complexity

- a) resource-directing variables:
 8. here-and-now
 9. few elements
 - 10.* no spatial reasoning
 - 11.* no causal reasoning
 - 12.* no intentional reasoning

- 13.* no perspective-taking
- b) resource-dispersing variables:
14. planning time
15. single task
16. task structure
17. few steps
18. independency of steps
19. prior knowledge

Linguistic complexity

- a) syntactic complexity (only pertaining to learner speech production):
20. coordination
21. subordination
22. phrasal elaboration
- b) lexical complexity: lexical productivity and density (include receptive and productive knowledge):
23. nouns
24. verbs
25. adjectives
26. adverbs

* Robinson's Triadic Framework (2010, 2011) describes the resource-directing variables 10-13 as positive parameters, but for the task complexity analysis in the table below the presence of these task demands are indicated as a minus to standardize the notation of complexity across all the task dimensions.

Table 6.1: Task complexity analyses summary

Target tasks and subtasks	Task Complexity																										
	Interactive							Cognitive												Linguistic							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
	1a	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	2	1	0	1
	1b	-	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	0	1	0	13	6	6	1
	1c	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	+	1	0	0	8	2	2	1
	1d	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	0	1	0	5	3	2	0
	1e	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	3	2	0	0
	2a	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	2	3	0	3
2b	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	0	0	0	10	12	1	7	

2c	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	1	2	1	6	5	0	4
2d	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	3	9	4	20	15	2	14
2e	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	1	1	0	7	5	1	6
2f	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	3	9	6	14	12	12	10
3a	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	1	9	0	16	3	4	1
3b	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	3	21	5	24	20	9	11
3c	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	2	6	2	10	10	9	5
3d	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	3	3	0	7	5	4	3
4a	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	1	0	5	5	1	1
4b	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	2	3	0	6	11	0	4
4c	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	1	4	3	10	10	4	1
4d	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	+	7	5	3	15	12	6	6
4e	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	1	2	0	3	6	1	2
5a	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	0	0	2	2	0	0
5b	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	+	0	1	1	1	2	2	2
5c	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	1	0	0	3	0	0
5d	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	2	4	0	6	12	0	3
6a	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	2	2	0	4	2	1	0
6b	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	1	8	2	11	17	2	6
6c	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	1	6	0	2	12	0	1
7a	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	0	1	0	15	21	4	9
7b	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	4	5	1	12	23	2	13
7c	+	-	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	1	7	0	11	10	2	3
7d	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	0	0	0	5	14	0	4
8a	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	+	3	17	2	21	18	3	5
8b	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	1	2	1	5	10	1	3
8c	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	2	5	0	10	16	0	1
9a	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	4	0	4	4	1	2
9b	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	3	5	0	8	12	3	3
9c	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	1	6	2	7	16	1	7
9d	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	1	2	0	11	17	3	4
10a	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	1	0	0	12	15	3	4
10b	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	1	0	0	14	15	5	6
10c	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	5	13	0	15	28	3	10
10d	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	11	25	0	24	33	5	11
11a	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	2	1	0	33	24	7	10
11b	+	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	1	0	0	10	7	3	3
11c	+	-	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	1	5	0	18	19	2	7
11d	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	3	4	1	21	13	2	7
12a	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	0	0	0	6	3	0	2
12b	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	4	0	3	7	0	3
12c	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	2	2	0	18	8	3	9
12d	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	2	0	2	13	5	0	3

	12e	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	1	5	0	15	16	5	5
	12f	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	+	1	5	1	15	12	3	9	
	13a	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	3	1	0	6	9	3	6	
	13b	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	3	4	0	18	12	5	17	
	13c	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	0	4	0	4	8	0	3	

6.10 ASSESSMENT TASKS

In this section, complexity views gathered from second language acquisition theory, specifically regarding L2 development and task-based language learning, along with the results of the analyzed target tasks in this current chapter, are consolidated to present a framework and preliminary suggestions for assessment tasks for beginner learners of isiXhosa L2 in primary school intermediate phase.

Assessment tasks measure language learners' ability to perform increasingly more difficult and varied target tasks (Colpin and Gysen, 2006). Assessment is an integral part of the instructional L2 learning setting and an essential component of language curricula. It is vital that L2 proficiency is measured adequately – in other words validly, reliably and feasibly (Housen and Kuiken, 2009). Ellis (2003) states that the starting point of language learning assessment planning is identifying the language ability that is to be measured. Ellis maintains that content familiarity and content knowledge are inseparable of language ability and, therefore, are essential for assessment validity. Robinson (2011a) states that a consistent level of complexity across multiple testing tasks ensures greater test reliability. (See section 5.4.3 for a discussion of task-based assessment, assessment validity and reliability.)

The learners' level of development should be considered when assessing their task performances by distinguishing between errors and mistakes (Nasaji, 2015). In sections 5.5.3 and 5.6, Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis was advanced as providing a rationale for assessing learners' L2 development level, with the resource-directing variables eliciting the range of linguistic resources available to the learner, and the resource-dispersing variables determining the level of automatization. This view is explored further in section 6.10.2 presenting a dynamic performance-based assessment model allowing assessors to distinguish between learners' mistakes and errors, while assessing L2 development in terms of the fluency, accuracy and complexity components of learners' L2 production during task-based performances.

6.10.1 A framework for applying the Cognition Hypothesis to assessment tasks

A framework for task-based assessment in terms of the Cognition Hypothesis relates assessment task validity to assessment task goal. According to Nassaji (2015) errors are deviations from the target language performance that are due to lacks in the knowledge system in the language processing device of learners. On the other hand, mistakes result from an inability to access the knowledge that the learner already possesses. When teachers assess learners' language ability, they want to determine whether acquisition has taken place (the absence of errors) and the level of acquisition or implicit knowledge (the absence of mistakes).

Task-based test validity and reliability ensure that language acquisition of a specific language domain and stereotypical task are measured accurately. Greater quantity and variety of assessment tasks afford higher validity and reliability (Colpin and Gysen, 2006). Ellis (2003) maintains that the learners should be familiar with the task domain and task type. Keck and Kim (2014) further maintain that form-meaning-use mappings that occur during task-based learning afford the triggering of similar meaning-forms associations during related real life situations, and in task-based assessment when assessment tasks are alike to the instructional tasks. Robinson's Triadic Framework (2007) affords the identification of underlying abilities in target tasks that assessment tasks set out to measure, allowing identification of similar tasks types, and provides a rationale for controlling and sequencing task complexity. Test reliability is essential, especially for summative assessment. Ellis (2003) argues the value of closed task outcomes for objective measuring, while Colpin and Gysen suggest that independency of steps improve reliability.

Task-based assessment is performance-based and, therefore, considered most valid if it is the ability to use language that is measured. However, as L2 learner's language performance is dynamic, non-linear and complex, performance-based assessment may lack reliability. Keck and Kim (2014) maintain that dynamic assessment ensures that assessment input matches the learners' abilities. (See section 3.2.2 for social perspectives on second language learning and the Dynamic Systems approach.) Robinson's (2005b) distinction between developmental and performative dimensions in the cognitive demands that target tasks place on learner's performances, allows teachers to manipulate assessment tasks so as to measure L2 performances in terms of fluency, accuracy and complexity. The Cognition Hypothesis claims that increasing the complexity of the conceptual-functional requirements of tasks could lead to increased complexity and accuracy in L2 performance. This is only possible if the learner's

language processing mechanisms are compatible with the input. (See section 2.2.2 for an application of the affordances theory to noticing and language acquisition.) The performative or procedural demands of target tasks access implicit knowledge, and, therefore, negatively affords fluency.

This framework considers Robinson's (2010) Triadic Componential Framework for task classification as providing the necessary categories, criteria and design characteristics for determining task types, the language abilities and task sequences to ensure validity and reliability in assessment by describing dynamic task-based language assessment that distinguishes between learner errors and learner mistakes.

6.10.2 Preliminary suggestions for assessment tasks

In this section, Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis and research findings regarding L2 development components (complexity, accuracy and fluency) are applied to a model for dynamic performance assessment tasks. Keck and Kim (2014) describe three essential steps in developing assessment tasks. They state that firstly, the focus and purpose of the assessment are decided, including formative, diagnostic and summative purposes. Secondly, the constructs and the context of use are specified, including real-world situations, linguistic forms and register. Finally, assessment tasks are developed with non-linguistic goals that create an obligatory context for the use of required forms to express meaning and successfully complete the tasks. Ellis (2003) maintains that task essentialness for a prespecified linguistic feature is better controlled through comprehension tasks with closed outcomes. However, to gauge the level of proceduralization or implicit knowledge that learners have acquired, Ellis and Shintani (2014) apply fluency as an indicator in oral tasks or timed grammatical judgement tasks (also see Ellis, 2005b).

The assessment task model in figure 6.1 suggests a task sequence to test and grade a learner's current interlanguage. There are two principles suggested: firstly, only the cognitive factors for task complexity are considered for performance assessment, and secondly, target task conceptual demands are introduced first to determine the level of development (namely the complexity of current interlanguage), before the procedural demands are manipulated for the dynamic assessment of the level of performance (namely accuracy) and proceduralization (represented in fluency). These principles are presented in a TtTaPa model in figure 6.1. The performance is measured according to dimensions of complexity, accuracy and fluency in language development. Functional adequacy is required for achievement of the task goals at

every level or grade of the assessment rubric (Palotti, 2009). Functional adequacy is described as appropriate and effective TL behaviour in terms of the task focus and the task context as defined by clear task description specifications, the task type and the task outcome, while also considering the learner's age and proficiency level in the TL, with regard for multilingual language competence. (See section 4.4.2.)

The target task (Tt) is the benchmark performance and is based on familiar content, while learners are given adequate time to allow for on-line planning. (The benchmark is set at the rubric level 3 in figure 6.1.) Research studies with performance variables [+ planning time, + task familiarity] indicate that these positive parameters affords complexity. See section 5.3 and the research results of Révész and Han's study regarding task familiarity, as well as studies with online planning of Geng and Ferguson (2013) and Ahmadian and Tavakoli (2010) for positive correlations with complexity. Skehan (2009) reviews a number of task-based studies with planning time as a dependable variable, maintaining that planning time affords more complexity and fluency. Robinson, Cardierno and Shirai (2009) assert that the manipulation of resource-directing variables increases the task's cognitive and conceptual demands for the learners. This affords the use of specific aspects of language to meet the task demands and complete the task effectively. A number of studies support this notion. Levkina and Gilabert (2012) maintain that the resource-directing variable [+/- few elements] is implemented differently in different tasks, with some tasks increasing the number of conditions to consider for decision-making, other tasks increases the number of objects to choose from or differentiate, and others increase the number of landmarks to refer to when navigating a map. They found that increasing the number of elements to consider in a decision-making task lead to greater lexical complexity and less fluency. Planning time allowed learners to activate and conceptualize more varied words, leading to more lexical complexity during task performance. Skehan (2009) maintains that narrative tasks are input-driven and afford the use of specific lexical items and therefore lexical complexity. He advances that personal information exchange tasks that rely on familiar content afford greater fluency and accuracy. Bitchener's (2010) study indicates that decision-making tasks which are purpose-driven afford more complex conceptualizations and the use of abstract nouns. These studies indicate that task design along the conceptual dimension allows assessors to determine the communicative adequacy along cognitive and linguistic complexity levels.

If the task outcome is not achieved under these performance conditions [+ planning time, + task familiarity], then the assessor scaffolds the learner's performance with teacher assistance (Ta)

to afford accuracy. Geng and Ferguson (2013) advance that teacher-assisted planning affords more accuracy. Firstly, the assessor breaks down the task into single tasks (see level 2 of the rubric in figure 6.1), but if the task outcomes are still not achieved then the assessor provides task structure through recasting, prompting, priming or examples of the target language (see level 1 of the rubric in figure 6.1). See sections 4.3.1 and 4.3.2 for a discussion of the effects of priming and implicit corrective feedback, namely recasts and prompts, respectively. Pica (2013) states that implicit corrective feedback affords accuracy. The teacher's or assessor's role is to scaffold the learners' performances and to provide task structure so as to afford accuracy (i.e. the absence of mistakes) by allowing access to explicit language knowledge. Skehan (2009) maintains that task structure affords greater accuracy and fluency. However, if the learner is still unable to meet the task demands with communicative adequacy through the use of task essential language structures, this will be considered an error due to the lack of required linguistic knowledge in the TL (see level 0 of the rubric in figure 6.1).

On the other hand, if the learner achieves the target task (Tt) under the required target task performance requirements (see level 3 of the rubric in figure 6.1), then the assessor increases the task procedural demands to push automaticity (Pa). Firstly, the assessor reduces the time allowance for the task performance (see level 4 of the rubric in figure 6.1). Ellis (2005b) argues that time-pressured tests afford L2 learners' reliance on implicit knowledge. Implicit knowledge is necessary for fluent L2 production and comprehension (Ellis, 2005a). See section 4.2.2 for a discussion of implicit and explicit knowledge. If the learner is still fluent and achieves the task outcome with communicative adequacy, then the assessor present novel information to push complexity and fluency, and ultimately assess automaticity (see level 5 of the rubric in figure 6.1). Skehan (2009) maintains that information manipulation affords complexity. Skehan (2009) also reviews the findings of Foster and Skehan (1996, 1997) indicating that unfamiliar task content affords greater complexity, but less fluent and less accurate language usage.

Task design, with specific cognitive demands, and task sequencing that manipulates performative demands allow assessment tasks to dynamically assess learners' explicit and implicit language knowledge. The TtTaPa model that is presented in figure 6.1 is a preliminary proposal for language production assessment tasks. Research have to verify the validity, reliability and feasibility of dynamic performance assessment task sequences based on this model.

Dimensions of performance measurement		ACCURACY			COMPLEXITY	FLUENCY	
		Simple			Target Performance	Complex	
		0	1	2	3	4	5
Dimensions of task Complexity	Single task	+	+	+	-	-	-
	Task Structure	+	+	-	-	-	-
	Planning Time	+	+	+	+	-	-
	Prior Knowledge	+	+	+	+	+	-
Task outcome achieved		Not Achieved	Achieved	Achieved	Achieved	Achieved	Achieved

Figure 6.1 The TtTaPa model for a L2 production assessment task

6.11 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Second language teachers and syllabus designers endeavour to engage L2 learners in authentic TL usage, while they lack the linguistic resources in the L2 and their L1 is already established as their primary tool for thinking, communicating and expressing their identity. A task-based approach to L2 learning is defined by a syllabus using tasks as the units of analysis, and assessment based on task performance. This chapter investigated real-world tasks with non-linguistic goals as the starting point for syllabus design for young beginner isiXhosa L2 learners in primary school intermediate phase with a general communicative language proficiency outcome (Ellis, 2003, Nunan, 2004, Robinson, 2010). The complexity analysis of target tasks identified subcomponents and enabling skills necessary to standardize and scaffold young, beginner learners' L2 performances.

The seven target tasks for isiXhosa in sections 6.2 – 6.8 were analyzed according to interactive, cognitive and linguistic complexity parameters. These target tasks are considered to represent language affordances as they address the young learners' social and academic needs and interests. It was shown how the interactive and cognitive variables suggested by Robinson (2010, 2011a) were realized in the interaction through complex patterns with more or less of various complexity characteristics interacting and impacting simultaneously on the conceptualizer. However, certain task complexity characteristics manifested as remarkably

more task essential to target task performance than others. The linguistic complexity analysis made explicit the forms that formulate the message in response to the task demands. The analysis showed that the syntactic and lexical complexity corresponds with the task topic, task context and task demands. Activity orientated tasks (including target tasks 4, 6 and 9) resulted in more verb constructions and subordinate clauses, while information orientated tasks (including target tasks 1, 12 and 13) resulted in more nouns and noun phrases. Additionally, it showed that the lexical productivity is determined by the task demands and the context. Monologues resulted in longer stretches of discourse, such as presented in subtasks 2(d), 9(c), 12(e, f) and 13(b), but contextual factors and communicative focus determined by task goals were paramount.

This chapter investigated how linguistic complexity increases when it is specifically required by the task and its goals (Palotti, 2009). A correlation between cognitive complexity and linguistic complexity was described in the complexity analyses of subtasks. This chapter further explored the application of a cognitive-linguistic interface invoking Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis for pedagogic practice staging pedagogic tasks and systematically increasing the task demands, and by implication the task complexity in terms of Robinson's SSARC-model affording L2 development. Robinson's SSARC-model was applied to various pedagogic tasks. Certain stereotype tasks were identified in accordance with the tasks' interactive and cognitive factors, including narrative tasks (see sections 6.4.5, 6.5.5, 6.6.5, 6.8.5), a direction-giving map task (see section 6.3.5), an instruction-giving task (see section 6.6.5), one-way information-gap tasks (see sections 6.2.5, 6.7.5, 6.8.5), two-way information-gap tasks (see sections 6.2.5, 6.3.5, 6.4.5, 6.8.5), an opinion-gap task (see section 6.4.5), decision-making tasks (see sections 6.3.5 and 6.5.5) and reasoning-gap tasks (see sections 6.4.5, 6.5.5, 6.6.5, 6.7.5). The SSARC-model is cyclic and allows for the repetition of task versions to accommodate learners' language abilities and variable L2 development rate.

The chapter explored the view that task-based assessment representing the learning outcomes is interconnected with methodology and task goals. (See section 5.4.3 for views of task-based assessment.) To assess specific linguistic forms, comprehension tasks and focused input tasks afford task validity, but production tasks present more sensitive measures of implicit knowledge. Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis and research studies in complexity, accuracy and fluency were applied in motivating a TtTaPa model for language production assessment tasks that is proposed to distinguish between learners' mistakes and errors. The TtTaPa model is based on the principle that the modifications to specific task demands design features afford

complexity in language production, while procedural demands push automaticity. This is a theoretical model and its validity and reliability are yet to be tested.

CHAPTER SEVEN

AFFORDING NOTICING THROUGH TASK DESIGN, METHODOLOGY AND FOCUS ON FORM FOR YOUNG BEGINNER L2 LEARNERS OF ISIXHOSA IN PRIMARY SCHOOL INTERMEDIATE PHASE

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, noticing in task-based language learning of isiXhosa as a second language (L2) in the intermediate phase of primary schools is explored as a function of task-based language teaching. In chapter 3 and 4 second language acquisition literature regarding noticing was investigated, applying an affordances theory advancing perception as representing an interface between social and cognitive learning processes (see sections 3.1 and 4.4.4). In the instructional setting, *awareness* presents an interface between task-based language teaching and task-based language learning, affording language development and accuracy (Keck and Kim, 2014). Theoretical perspectives and second language acquisition (SLA) research describing the role of noticing in L2 development are applied to pedagogical practice with regard to pedagogical grammar and grammar-based tasks, identifying affordances for awareness-raising in young beginner L2 learners. Specifically, affordances in task design, methodology and focus on form for noticing are considered, allowing for incremental, differential and non-linear L2 learning processes.

SLA theoretical perspectives on the nature of L2 learning support an affordance-based approach in L2 teaching (Anderson, 2015). Individual differences in language aptitude, previous language knowledge and multicompetence add to the complexity of dynamic, non-linear L2 learning processes (Ortega, 2009, Cenoz, 2013b). Real time L2 performance relies on implicit knowledge. L2 competence requires massive exposure and engagement with the target language, affording implicit learning through contextualized form-function-meaning mapping of the input (Robinson, 2011b). Noticing input affords L2 comprehension that represents the consolidation and restructuring of implicit language knowledge, which is however developmentally gated. L2 processing theories explaining learner readiness with regard to input and noticing were discussed in section 3.2.3.2.1. This chapter invokes an affordances theory in noticing to inform L2 teaching, considering awareness-raising tasks as opportunities for learners to engage with meaning and form during contextualized, authentic communicative tasks.

L2 development towards more effective communication is considered a function of noticing the gap. (See section 4.4 for a review of theoretical perspectives on language development.) In section 4.3.2, the role of interaction in L2 learning was discussed with references to noticing processes, including noticing the hole and noticing the gap. The Cognition Hypothesis advances task complexity as an affordance for L2 development (See section 3.2.4.) In chapter 6, task design that affords noticing as a function of complexity by confronting learners with the hole in their L2 communicative ability was explored within isiXhosa communicative task analyses (Pica, 2013). Swain and Lapkin (1998) maintain that task-based peer interaction affords negotiation of meaning and negotiation of form. In the current chapter, noticing in instructed L2 learning setting is examined where noticing the gap also affords metalinguistic awareness, an engagement with form and explicit language knowledge, as these form part of the primary school language curriculum. The importance of explicit language knowledge in L2 learning was motivated in task-based language teaching from perspectives that advance its role in noticing (Ellis, 2003) and those that posit an explicit-implicit L2 knowledge interface (Ellis, 2005a, Ellis and Shintani, 2014). (See section 4.4.2 for a discussion of implicit and explicit learning.)

These functions of noticing are linked to pedagogic practices in sections 7.2 and 7.3 of the current chapter, when affordances in task design and teacher intervention are explored. Different task types, including focused comprehension and collaborative output tasks, enhanced input tasks and structured grammar production tasks are described and explored with proposed awareness-raising activities for young beginner learners. Further pedagogic proposals are made in terms of focus on form and specific methodological activities, including teaching formulaic language, with reference to the linguistic complexity analyses of communicative tasks in sections 6.2 – 6.8, for teaching isiXhosa as an additional language in primary school intermediate phase. In section 7.4, the language affordances theory in L2 teaching explores various learning opportunities through task-based teaching. This view supports Anderson's (2015) proposal for an affordances approach to lesson planning for L2 learning. This approach is committed to education, the promotion of multilingualism and language development through language teaching in primary schools. An affordances theory in second language learning in the instructed L2 setting is investigated, considering task design and the teacher's role in presenting learning opportunities through focus on form and pushed output as facilitating learner awareness, affording noticing and ultimately advancing L2 development and accuracy in L2 use.

7.2 TASK DESIGN

The focus in this section is on task design that affords learner awareness of forms within a task-based teaching approach by increasing input and output frequency or enhancing the saliency of complex linguistic features (Shak and Gardner, 2008). In section 4.4.4, the essential role of noticing in L2 learning was discussed with reference to different perspectives in the literature on the degree of consciousness needed. Task design identifies the task input and task conditions in terms of complexity task design features, presented in various task types affording noticing to different extents of consciousness. Ellis (2003) distinguishes between focused and unfocussed tasks, while Nassaji and Fotos (2011) refer to Nassaji's (1999) distinction of attention to form achieved through design or process. Focus on form through process or unfocussed tasks rely on task-based peer interaction, facilitated by task design and complexity design features, to evoke attention to form. On the other hand, focused tasks or focus on form through design may include comprehension tasks, production tasks or collaborative output task that have a deliberate, planned focus on form element (Nassaji and Fotos, 2011).

7.2.1 Unfocused tasks

In unfocused tasks, noticing results from task design that evoke interaction and pushed output. Interaction is an attention-drawing device (Gass and José Alvarez Torres, 2005). Gass and José Alvarez Torres (2005) discuss Sharwood Smith's (1993) distinction between internally and externally driven input enhancement, asserting that complex language areas need external regulation. Gass, Svetics and Lemelin (2003) maintain that complex language areas need focused attention, but areas of language that form part of the surface structure (like lexicon) are acquired through learners' internal resources. The Cognition Hypothesis supports this notion, predicting that more complex tasks will lead to cognitively enhanced interaction, which supports acquisition (Robinson, 2011a). Gass, Mackey and Pica (1998) maintain that interaction facilitates L2 acquisition by making the input more salient, affording noticing.

Task conditions are task criteria describing communicative behaviour supporting language learning through interaction. Motivating the Interaction Hypothesis, Long (2015) maintains that learners do not need simplified input, but rather simplified tasks and elaborated input. During task performances, peer interaction affords elaborated language input. Long posits that negotiation of meaning creates a domain of language affordances that are optimal for language learning. In discussing the relationship between pushed output and noticing in L2 development, Keck and Kim (2014) accept Swain's (1985) Output Hypothesis advancing that language

production is a process of engaging with language form to formulate an accurate and appropriate message. (See section 4.3.2 for a discussion of the output and interaction hypotheses.)

Ellis (2012) describes task criteria that afford interaction, including a non-linguistic task outcome that requires information exchange, whether to solve a puzzle or a problem, to express different viewpoints, infer meaning and making a decision. The Triadic Componential Framework proposes participation variables making interactional demands on participants that are determined by the task conditions, including a definite and/or singular solution, two-way information flow, requiring participants' negotiation and several contributions (Robinson, 2011a). Task conditions that divide the input amongst the participants, necessitating sharing of information and negotiation to arrive at a single, agreed upon task outcome, afford maximum opportunities for interaction and pushed output.

Long (2015) maintains that not all interaction is equally beneficial for L2 learning, but negotiation of meaning, including comprehension checks, recasts and clarification requests, affords comprehension. He further maintains that linguistic complexity, leading to L2 processing difficulties, affords negotiation of meaning, interactional modifications and pushed output through focus on form. Confirmation checks and clarification requests naturally occur during task-based learner-learner interaction, as is evident in the target tasks' simulated dialogues (see appendices 1 and 8):

Uyawubona na? *Do you see it?* (Target task 1, line 81)

Yebo? *Right?* (Target task 1, line 49)

Aiyiopinki leyo? *Isn't that pink?* (Target task 8, line 45)

Utheni utitshala sinakho ukubhala iilebhile ngeekhrayoni? *Did the teacher say that we can write the labels with crayons?* (Target task 8, line 49)

The Cognition Hypothesis advances a synergetic relationship between cognitive and interactive factors in task design, affording maximum opportunities for interaction and language learning (Robinson, 2011a). The task provides the context of use, allowing the necessary form-function-meaning mapping to occur (Robinson, 2011b). Swain and Lapkin (1998) maintain that task-based peer interaction affords focus on meaning and focus on form, where language-related episodes result in more skillful learner output and L2 learning. Gass, Mackey and Pica (1998)

support the interaction hypothesis, asserting that negotiation of meaning connects input, attention, learner capacities and output.

In summary, in unfocused tasks, task design regards complexity participation variables that afford noticing during peer interaction, by promoting pushed output constituting elaborated input, which requires interactants to attend to form while negotiating meaning.

7.2.2 Focused tasks

Focused tasks aim at drawing L2 learners' attention to distinguished complex forms by discerning task design and task implementation features. Nassaji and Fotos (2011) distinguish between implicit and explicit focused tasks, where the former have non-linguistic task outcomes that present a specific utility criterion for predetermined forms during task performance, whereas the latter have grammar structure as the task contents. Ellis and Shintani (2014) describe explicit grammar-focused tasks, including grammar consciousness-raising tasks with explicit grammar rule formation as the task outcome and interpretation tasks that inductively present new grammatical structures without requiring explicit rule formation. Richards and Reppen (2014) separate the concepts grammar knowledge from grammar ability, maintaining a perspective of grammar as a resource for communication, instead of an object of study. (See section 3.2.3.2.1 for a discussion of declarative and procedural knowledge, representing comparative constructs in processing theories.) Although young learners' developing linguistic and cognitive abilities limit the use of metalanguage and more explicit grammar-focused tasks, primary school intermediate phase scholars between the ages of 9 and 13 years present an emerging analytic language learning style, requiring greater integration of explicit and implicit focus on form practices (Wray, 2008). (See sections 3.2.4, 4.2.2, 5.4.2 and 5.5.3 for further discussions of young learners' language learning processes.) Keck and Kim (2014) discuss Larsen-Freeman's (2003) framework for pedagogic grammar, maintaining that grammar instruction should include dimensions of form, meaning and use for L2 learners to apply grammar resources both accurately and appropriately. Within a task-based teaching approach, grammar-focused tasks are communicative, meaning-orientated, learner-centered activities that allow for individual progress and non-linear development.

7.2.2.1 Explicit grammar-focused tasks for young beginner learners

Young beginner learners' more limited cognitive ability and linguistic experience directly impress on optimal task design affording noticing. In sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2, theoretical perspectives regarding age of learning and differences in learning processes were analyzed with

research findings indicating mainly implicit learning in young learners. Explicit L2 teaching is motivated based on studies indicating increased learning rate and greater complexity and accuracy in L2 production (Norris and Ortega, 2000 and Alcón-Soler, 2009). A number of research studies found positive results for explicit pedagogic practices with young learners (Corcoll, 2013, Shak and Gardner, 2008, Wray, 2008).

Explicit focused communicative tasks heighten learners' awareness of the relationship between form, meaning and function, while allowing learners to notice the gap between the target language and their interlanguage. Shak and Gardner (2008) report that young learners were more motivated when they worked in groups during explicit form-focused tasks, while they reported less favourable attitudes towards inductive tasks requiring explicit metalinguistic rule formulations. Advancing however, the benefits of interpretation tasks for young learners that afford learner awareness of regularities in linguistic form without explicit rule formulation, Shak and Gardner describe conscious-raising tasks, dictogloss tasks, grammar interpretation tasks and grammaring tasks performed with learners between the ages of 9 and 12 years. Working with 8 year olds, Corcoll (2013) maintains that cross-language interpretation tasks afford metalinguistic awareness and self-corrections indicating learners noticing the gap, as well as greater levels of enjoyment and motivation, in young beginner learners.

7.2.2.1.1 Examples of inductive interpretation tasks

Target task 9 (Class discipline): Task-natural, complex linguistic forms were identified for explicit grammar focus in section 6.6.4. The linguistic complexity analysis of this target task's simulated dialogue (see section 6.6.4) indicates a focus on activity affording greater use of verbs and adverbs, with the A-past tense and subordination used for reporting. Although the relatively small number of nouns identified in the lexical complexity analysis may be explained by the task orientation, or the learners' age and their limited cognitive development (Ishikawa, 2015), the inflectional morphemes, including subject and object concords, are common in isiXhosa and often used without the noun heads during longer stretches of discourse, especially when the interlocutors share a context. These linguistic forms are non-salient, and explicit focus on form may be required to afford awareness and noticing. With non-salient linguistic forms, including inflectional categories indicating verb tenses and nominal agreement, more explicit focus on form or grammar-focused activities afford noticing and understanding. Discussing Ellis's (1995) views on inductive presentation tasks in explicit instruction, Ellis and Shintani (2014) describe interpretation tasks as aiding learners to make form-function connections without

formulating explicit rules. The description of an incident of bad behaviour in the classroom (subtask 9b, section 6.6) presents opportunities for inductive interpretation focused tasks. Offering the same sentences to learners, but with different sentence subjects or objects mapping differently onto the same verb, affords noticing of nominal agreement. The focused task follows the communicative activity with a focus on comprehension (see the first pedagogic task version, in section 6.6.5), contextualizing the grammar-focused activity within a meaning-focused communicative task, which affords further form-meaning-use mapping (Keck and Kim, 2014). In the third pedagogic task version (section 6.6.5), the learners are required to describe an incident that happened the previous day. However, learners may rely on content time words to semantically convey the past tense, instead of using functional predicative inflections, necessitating focused-grammar tasks to increase the saliency of these difficult linguistic features, affording accuracy in the use of verb tenses and adverbs. Shak and Gardner (2008) describe interpretation tasks where learners compare the verb tenses in two stories, a grammar interpretation task where the learners are only given the content words and are required to supplement the function words (and functional morphemes) to tell the story, as well as a dictogloss task where learners listen to a story (or report) and have to reconstruct the story, first individually and then in groups. These activities can work well with any reporting or narrative task to create awareness in young learners through inductive interpretation, while older and more analytic learners may need more explicit use of metalanguage (Ellis and Shintani, 2014).

7.2.2.1.2 Examples of cross-language interpretation tasks

Target task 1 (At the tuck shop): Task-natural complex linguistic forms are identified prior to task performances or problematic linguistic features emerge during task performances, necessitating focused tasks affording explicit meta-linguistic awareness. The target task requires learners to describe the items that they want to buy. Learners may rely on negative transfer using brand names, like *iTastic rice* or *iGo Slow packet*, affording fluency during task performances, however, to support greater accuracy in the interlanguage, it is important that learners notice positive evidence illustrating the nominal modifier following the noun head with a descriptive possessive **a** (section 6.2.3). The use of plural forms, adjectives and nominal modifiers are also needed for effective task completion. As these parametric settings may be different from learners' L1, learners could perceive these forms as complex, constituting linguistic difficulty requiring explicit focus on the functional morphology (Slabakova, 2013). With younger learners, the nouns may be introduced as multiword nominal phrases that are

learnt as chunks, e.g. *iiswiti ezimbomvu* (*red sweets*) or *ipakethe enkulu yeGo Slow* (*a big packet of Go Slow*). (See section 7.4 for a further discussion of formulaic language learning.) Asking learners to make a shopping list in the target language and in their L1 affords cross-linguistic awareness and noticing. Learners work in groups using additional support materials, including dictionaries. This activity resembles Corcoll's (2013) plurilingual menu activity. Corcoll reports that the learners working with English, Catalan and Spanish, particularly negotiated word order and choice of lexis when a language had more than one word representing a concept. Conscious-raising tasks that require explicit rule formation and verbalizing the concept-based explanation afford noticing with older learners (Ellis and Shintani, 2014:95). (See section 5.5.3.)

7.2.2.2 Implicit focused tasks

Task design that aims to standardize the language use of L2 learners by developing accuracy through implicit grammar-focused communication tasks explores task-essentialness. Ellis (2003) maintains that task-essentialness is best achieved through focused comprehension tasks. He advances the use of listen-and-do tasks with beginner learners. Implicit focused tasks satisfy a utility criterion for specific linguistic forms, affording learner engagement with grammar comprehension in addition to message comprehension (Nassaji and Fotos, 2011). Input-driven focused production tasks providing a framework or structure for task performances, such as pictures for a narrative task, afford the use of specific lexical items (Skehan, 2009). Keck and Kim (2014) posit the effectiveness of focused jigsaw tasks with a convergent and single task outcome, such as spot-the-difference tasks, for affording accuracy in the use of specific language forms. Nassaji and Fotos maintain that information-gap tasks, affording more learner output and increased frequency of use of the target structures, enhance noticing.

7.2.2.2.1 Examples of implicit focused comprehension tasks

Target task 2 (A direction-giving task): In this listen-and-do task, the target structures include different locative noun phrases, locative adverbs and subordination of consecutive actions. The learners are presented with a map of the school or a diagram of the classroom. Learners listen to the directions and indicate the route on the map, or draw objects in precise locations in a room. The use of negative instructions and adverbial phrases indicating order of actions, direction or position, including **musa uku-** (*don't do*), **emva koku-** (*after doing*), **phambi koku-** (*before doing*) and **ekhohlo kwalo** (*left of it*), make further demands on grammar

comprehension, while frequency of input affords noticing of verb endings needed for expressing consecutive instructions.

Target tasks 12 (An instruction-giving task): Using the target language for general, routine classroom instructions relating to assignments, lesson organization, administration and discipline allows for maximum exposure through daily repetition, while building learners' L2 self-confidence and their self-perceived competence (also see target task 9). See section 4.2.3 for a discussion of research results regarding motivation, willingness to communicate and TL output as language affordances. In section 6.7.5, a one-way information-gap task is described with a closed, convergent task outcome demanding spatial reasoning. The learners have to follow increasingly complex assignment instructions regarding a content subject lesson. The instructions include more than one relating task step, using the subjunctive verb with the –e inflected verb ending indicating consecutive actions. (Also see section 6.7.4 for the linguistic complexity task analysis.)

7.2.2.2.2 Examples of implicit focused production tasks

Target tasks 4, 6, 7, 8 and 13 (Narrative tasks): The strong narrative element and focus on activity in all four these target tasks necessitate a focus on the use of different tenses to describe past and future actions. When learners are asked to tell each other what happened in a previous episode of a television drama, or report on a sport match (tasks 6 and 7), they are required to use the past tense, although this is not explicitly mentioned. Similarly, when they plan a class party or a holiday (tasks 8 and 13), they use the future tense. Nassaji and Fotos (2011) describe how learners work together and reconstruct a past (or future) event that they are familiar with. They have to discuss, agree and decide upon the events that they want to include and how to describe it, after which they present it to the class. Learners have to rely on their own linguistic resources to construct these stories, however the task design and peer interaction push interlanguage output. Teacher interactional feedback provides reactive focus on form, affording comprehensible input ($i + 1$) in terms of individual learners' L2 developmental needs and learner readiness. (See section 7.3.1 for a further discussion of focus on form.)

Input-driven focused production tasks: When a narrative task accompanied by a set of pictures or questions are presented to the learners as task input, certain lexical elements and linguistic structures are implicitly required. Learners may be asked to describe a story according to a series of pictures, or to first arrange the pictures in order and then tell the story. (See the fourth pedagogic version of *my favourite television drama* in section 6.5.5.) A set of questions

directing their story telling requires task participants to use specific target linguistic structures in order to complete the task, e.g. *where did you go? how did you get there? when did you arrive?* In section 6.8.4, the linguistic complexity analysis of subtask 13(b) illustrates how the task design specifications in section 6.8.1 afford the use of temporal expression and locative noun phrases.

7.2.2.2.3 Examples of collaborative jigsaw output tasks

Target task 13 (A jigsaw puzzle): With collaborative jigsaw output tasks learners are given different versions of similar task input, and all the task participants must share their information to complete the task (Nassaji and Fotos, 2011). In subtask 13(c) the interactants return an item of lost property to its owner by describing the item and enquiring who it belongs to. The target structures for this task is the associative preposition **na-** and the possessive preposition. (See the linguistic complexity analysis of subtask 13c, in section 6.8.4.) The task support material are diagrams, illustrating a location (the playground) with a number of lost items and characters to whom the items may belong. The learners' diagrams vary with different lost items. In order to find out who the item belong to, the learners have to enquire from each other which character has the item on their diagram, e.g. asking, *Who is wearing a jersey? Whose hat is lost?* The interactant responds by describing the picture, e.g. *The boy is wearing a jersey. It is the grandma's hat.*

Summarizing this section, task design evoking learner engagement with task goal-orientated conceptualizations in the target language afford learner awareness of linguistic forms. In unfocused tasks learner-learner task-based interaction affords noticing when task design presents participation variables that make interactional demands. Focused tasks afford noticing of predetermined linguistic forms through task design that aspires after task-essentialness, requiring the use of specific language forms during meaningful task-based communication. Explicit focused tasks require authentic communication and learner engagement with grammar structure that constitutes the task content. However, explicit grammar instruction of predetermined linguistic structures remains problematic due to individual differences in developmental readiness and insufficient instructional time to attend to the entire grammatical system (Keck and Kim, 2014). Keck and Kim maintain that task design should consider relevant contexts of use for learners, in other words, relevant target tasks within which the learners can construct form-meaning-use associations. They further maintain that explicit

instruction should target areas of language development through manageable focus on form responding to learners' learning needs (2014:180).

7.3 TEACHER INTERVENTION

In the instructional setting, teachers play an important role in affording learners' awareness of language by providing positive and negative evidence of the target language. In section 4.4.1.1, the relationship between teacher talk and learner language development was analyzed. Lyster (2014) maintains that Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) IRF (Initiating move by teacher; Responding move by learner; Follow-up move by teacher) sequence of discourse presents a teacher-centered pedagogic approach, controlling classroom interaction. Nassaji and Fotos (2011) reinterprets classroom interaction within a learner and learning-centered task-based teaching classroom, describing the creation of opportunities to hear meaningful input, responding with pushed output and receiving feedback on target language production. In this section, teacher intervention in task-based language learning, affording proactive and reactive attention to form, is discussed and motivated for communicative language learning with a primary focus on meaning. In section 4.4.3, language difficulty in language learning was described as a function of typological language distance and a negative language affordance, motivating focus on form. In section 5.4.1, theoretical perspectives on task-based methodology was investigated, describing different approaches amongst proponents of task-based language teaching to balance focus on meaning with focus on form. These theories, describing affordances for noticing in L2 instruction, are integrated with pedagogical practice in illustrations of specific methodological activities, including formulaic language learning, with reference to the pedagogic task versions and complexity analyses, in chapter 6, promoting learner awareness of form.

7.3.1 Focus on form

Focus on form is sensitive to the individual learner's needs in terms of interlanguage development. Focus on form provides positive or negative evidence in response to learner mistakes or communication breakdown, during task performances when learners rely on their own linguistic resources. As such, focus on form relates to learner-readiness evident in the learner's emerging interlanguage, which is the manifestation of the individual's sociocultural, cognitive and linguistic conceptualization of task solutions, relying on dynamic multilingual learner language competence. Nasaji (2015) maintains that focus on form is more effective when it responds to learners' mistakes than learners' errors, which are lacks in learners'

linguistic knowledge system. Instead, mistakes are inappropriate or ineffective communicative behaviour, emerging in L2 use within a specific communicative context, indicating learner-readiness in accordance with their current interlanguage development level. Focus on form, whether proactive or reactive, is always presented within the context of use and during meaning-focused communicative tasks, affording form-meaning-use mapping (Keck and Kim, 2014).

Reactive focus on form manifests on a continuum varying from implicit to explicit teacher responses to ineffective learner output, affording noticing that matches learner readiness (Long, 2015). Reactive focus on form ranges from implicit corrective feedback, including recasts, to explicit error correction. More explicit language focus involves language-related episodes and languaging that require the use of metalanguage. See sections 4.4.1.1 and 4.4.2.2 for a discussion of metalanguage, L1 use and metalinguistic awareness as language affordances for young learners in the instructional context. Understanding L2 learning as a gradual, non-linear, individual process, differentiated in terms of noticing of target language input, supports the role of teachers scaffolding learners' attempts, in L2 development. Anderson (2015) describes the teacher's role as identifying and facilitating learning opportunities in terms of gradual developmental opportunities for improvement of target language abilities, including becoming more sensitive to input, gaining confidence in production and consolidating, reinforcing and expanding knowledge or strategies. Long (2015) maintains that focus on forms through synthetic syllabi that systematically teach language structures is unlikely to match learners' differential internal syllabi or learner readiness. Instead, focus on form is the teacher's response to learner processing problems viewed as learning opportunities, matching input with the individual's learning needs, affording development of language abilities.

Proactive focus on form aims to induce learner awareness of complex language forms in anticipation of processing difficulties during task performances. The notion of language difficulty was motivated in section 4.4.3 from a multilingual perspective on language learning, proposing cross-linguistic awareness as an affordance for noticing non-salient morphosyntactic forms. Willis and Willis (2007) support topic-related positive evidence through focus on form, including when teachers identify and make learners aware of complex language forms encountered in the context of use. They maintain that teachers may illustrate different meanings with reference to the functions of specific lexical, morphological or syntactic forms within the task context. Long asserts that focus on form presented in the task context, with a primary focus on meaning and communication, affords more interesting and motivating lessons that capture

learners' attention, which is essential for L2 acquisition. With proactive focus on form, Willis and Willis maintain the importance of first allowing learners to notice the gap or hole in their L2 ability and knowledge by giving learners more time to engage with the task before introducing language focus.

Examples of proactive and reactive focus on form pedagogic activities:

Target task 12 (A lesson on pollution): In content school subjects, new vocabulary and academic skills are introduced along with new information, affording L2 language development parallel with cognitive development (Christie, 2012). Teachers scaffold learner production attempts with prompts, recasts and more explicit corrective feedback, affording noticing through proactive and reactive focus on form. In this task, noun modifications through prefixes, affixes and nominal phrases emerged from the linguistic complexity analysis of the simulated task-natural dialogue contents as significant forms for task completion (see section 6.7.4). The importance of plurals and locatives for task completion confronts learners with the inflectional character of isiXhosa, affording noticing the hole during learner-learner task-based interaction. As these forms may be typologically very different to the learners' L1, and, consequently, difficult to acquire implicitly, proactive focus on form may be required. More explicit focus on form, including metalinguistic descriptions and explanations of forms and functions, afford noticing in older learners. Keck and Kim (2014) assert that these discussions and discourse analysis involve the use and understanding of a required level of metalanguage, rendering it only appropriate with older learners.

Target task 13 (The provinces of South Africa): This target task's linguistic complexity analysis (see section 6.8.4) presents specific complexity measures, including the use of different tenses, prepositional phrases and locative noun phrases to express time, manner and path, in task-natural language required to complete the tasks. Complex spatial reasoning is conceptualized with the prepositional phrase **nga**, used for expressing time and manner in adverbial phrases. IsiXhosa's agglutinative characteristics may be different from the learners' L1, rendering these forms more difficult to learn implicitly. Proactive focus on form draws learners' attention to these forms, providing topic-related positive evidence. Teachers describe the context-related meanings expressed through lexis (e.g. **ndandiqala ukuhamba**, *It was the first time I travelled*), morphology (e.g. **nga-** and **kwa-**) and syntax (e.g. **Ngo-2013, ngeKrimesi, ndahamba kunye nomama saya eThekwini**, *In 2013, at Christmas time, I travelled with my mother to Durban*) using L1 translations or elaborated input. Implicit and explicit reactive

focus on form afford noticing during task-based interaction. Nasaji and Fotos (2011) present corrective feedback strategies that can be ranked according to explicitness, from the least explicit being a clarification request, to the more explicit repetition of the learner's incorrect utterance providing opportunity for self-correction, in the absence of which the teacher may provide the appropriate form through a recast, or a more explicit elicitation that prompts the learner to self-correct, to explicit metalinguistic feedbacks or direct corrections. (See section 5.4.2.)

In summary, examples of proactive and reactive focus on form for pedagogic practice describe teacher intervention, affording noticing and uptake of complex linguistic forms. Keck and Kim (2014) maintain the importance of form-meaning mappings within the appropriate context of use, which is afforded by focus on form during task performances.

7.3.2 The role of teachers in task-based methodology

In section 5.4.1, task-based methodology was discussed describing variations in lesson structure and classroom participatory structures. Task-based language teaching is regarded as a flexible approach, rather than an exact method (Ellis, 2009). Although second language acquisition theories inform methodology, Ellis (2012) states that teaching practices primarily rely on teachers' practical knowledge gained through experience. Anderson (2015) maintains that teachers regularly deviate from the lesson plan to respond to the affordances for learning and learner development presented during classroom interaction. He asserts that task-based language teaching requires an affordance-based approach, rather than an outcomes-based approach to support individual differences in learners' abilities by creating matching learning opportunities. In section 7.4, Anderson's affordance-based approach to lesson planning is examined further for task-based isiXhosa L2 teaching of young beginner learners, and integrated with the affordances theory in multilingualism and L2 learning supported by this study, identifying different learning opportunities in the communicative tasks analyzed in chapter 6.

Teachers respond to the learners' specific learning needs by building on previous knowledge, encouraging learners to personally identify with the tasks, so as to move from familiar to new contexts (Cummins and Persad, 2014, Ellis, 2003). Nunan (2004) maintains the importance of this interdependence between tasks and task components in task sequences, supporting the construction of enabling skills. During the pre-task phase, teachers enhance the saliency of task input, priming learners for appropriate, effective language use needed to perform the task. (See

section 4.3.2 for a discussion of research findings relating to priming and uptake.) Teachers may model the task when learners are unfamiliar with the task format. This forms part of the priming stage when teachers introduce the task topic, motivating learner engagement and affording noticing through premodified and elaborated target language input (Willis and Willis, 2007). Willis and Willis describe language focus within the context of a communicative activity, including introducing new vocabulary. The value of formulaic language for affording fluency in L2 production and for supporting communication strategies were discussed previously, describing research findings that support formulaic language teaching for young beginner learners (see sections 2.2.4.2 and 4.3.2). During task performances teachers further afford noticing, performing a monitoring and facilitative pedagogic function, as they respond to learner productions with focus on form pushing learner output towards greater accuracy (Keck and Kim, 2014). The learners focus on semantic and pragmatic meaning while they work individually, in pairs or in groups towards the task outcome (Ellis and Shintain, 2014). During the post-task phase, teachers reflect on learners' uptake of learning opportunities, while learners report back or discuss the task, presenting affordances for noticing by recycling and reinforcement of language (Anderson, 2015). More explicit grammar focus during the post-task phase allows for contextualized explicit learning. As learners have already engaged with the task in a meaningful way, they are at this stage familiar with the forms and consequently more likely to notice the hole or gap in their linguistic knowledge (Willis and Willis, 2008).

To summarize, task-based teaching methodology is meaning-focused and learner-centered, however, teachers play a vital role creating learning opportunities by contextualizing tasks in terms of learners' individual needs so as to afford noticing throughout the task process. In the L2 classroom, noticing manifests as the uptake of language affordances, which is distinguished in learners' differentiated responses to learning opportunities in accordance with their developmentally gated learning readiness. Teachers reflect on the learners' development and emerging learning needs adjusting their teaching practices accordingly through lesson design and lesson process, enhancing learner awareness and affording noticing.

7.3.2.1 Examples of specific pedagogic methodologies affording learner awareness

With reference to the target tasks' analyses (6.2 – 6.8), specific pedagogic activities explore the theories and principles of focus on form in task-based teaching methodology for young beginner isiXhosa L2 learners.

Target task 1 (At the tuck shop) allows for teaching methods that explore crafts and gaming, affording learner motivation and engagement. (See section 5.4.2 for a further discussion of task-based teaching methods.) The use of formulas with brand names, formulaic expressions and nominal phrases incorporating product names to achieve task outcomes affords structural familiarity and stimulate retention of word sequence learning, allowing greater fluency during task performances and task participation for even very beginner learners (Boers and Lindstromberg, 2012).

During the pre-task phase, the teacher introduces a number of items for purchase and encourages whole class participation asking learners' help to create a shopping list. The teacher models appropriate formulaic language for purchasing items at the shop. Afterwards the learners practice these enabling skills in pairs.

The task interactive complexity analysis (section 6.2.2) supports a pedagogic two-way information-gap task that can be played as a card game in groups with 3-5 task participants (see section 6.2.5). The learners create a shopping list of 20 or more items. They divide the list of items amongst themselves with each member responsible for making a number of playing cards resembling the items on the shopping list, affording effort and engagement with new vocabulary. The playing cards are shuffled and divided amongst the task participants. The closed, convergent task solution is obtaining as many as possible of the items on the shopping list by purchasing them from other learners. The task participants conceal their playing cards as they play the game. This necessitates the interactants remembering who asked which item from who, and their response, allowing the participants to identify a card holder and locate the items they need. When it is their turn every player may ask for one item, namely a card which they do not have themselves, from one of the other players, who will respond by handing them the requested item or by informing them that they don't have the particular item or card. Using appropriate target language formulas to communicate these functions, initially forms part of the "game rules". The task participants take turns and must remember what was asked for and who does not have the cards they still need. A card or item that has been purchased is not for sale for the rest of the game, but is kept by the task participant who bought it. When all the cards have been 'sold', the players count their cards to see who bought the most products. The list of items is removed and the game is played again, forcing the learners to rely on their memories when they recall the items from the list. The players may also calculate the total cost of their purchases and sales to determine a winner.

During the post-task phase the teacher introduces a number of new items encouraging the learners to identify the objects using appropriate language to purchase the items. Using different sizes, colours, flavours and introducing number provide opportunities to make learners further aware of nominal modification, expanding their knowledge of the language systems. Task participants have further learning opportunities to improve their social skills in terms of using polite forms for addressing an adult, and to practice non-linguistic topic-related skills when working with numbers, such as budgeting by comparing and calculating the price of goods, total costs and total sales. (See section 7.4 for a further discussion of an affordance-based approach in task-based teaching.)

Target task 2 (Meeting and introducing a new learner) allows for the use of written and oral textual input enhancement affording noticing of complex linguistic forms, in a two-way jigsaw and an opinion-gap task that explore the similarities and differences between schools and schools' extra-mural programmes, and also in an instruction-giving or direction-giving school map or classroom diagram task (see section 6.3.5). (See section 7.3.2.2 for a further discussion of incidental learning through enhanced input.) These pedagogic tasks can be supported with appropriate diagrams that include labels affording noticing of specific forms, namely nominal modifiers describing the position of different elements on maps or clothing items of the school uniform, and imperative clauses describing school rules regarding the uniform or extra-curricular school activities. During the post-task phase, teachers model the introduction task, illustrating the cultural differences in terms of addressing persons with different status and roles, presenting a learning opportunity to develop important social skills and cross-cultural awareness. The teacher and learners reflect on language system knowledge, including consecutive instructions and locative noun forms. Focused grammar activities may include diagrams without labels and questions regarding the position of different elements in relation to others.

Target task 4 (A new cellphone for my birthday) affords the effective use of priming and repetition with whole class work, in the context of socially relevant and interesting activities. In primary school classes, birthdays are generally acknowledged frequently, presenting authentic opportunities for priming and repetition in the L2 classroom. The pedagogic narrative task for subtask 4(b), planning a party (see section 6.4.5 *my birthday*), may be introduced during the pre-task phase by planning a class party. This activity generally appeals to young learners' social interest, affording learner participation. Learners contribute with ideas and receive corrective feedback, while being introduced to the target task enabling skills, including the

necessary vocabulary knowledge. Similarly, with the cell phone tasks, a class discussion introduces the topic, motivating learner engagement and participation, and creates opportunities for the teacher and peers to model language priming learners for group work.

During task performances, frequency and salience of input afford L2 development (see sections 4.3.1 and 4.4.3). Repeating the plans for the party with task recycling, accompanied by the teacher's corrective feedback, makes the different moods of the verb more salient (see section 6.4.5). Textual salience of syntactic features in the instructional environment affords noticing, including when teachers introduce questioning and question words typographically or orally during narration tasks, and scaffolds the L2 development of questioning. During the post-task phase, teachers frequently use questioning during learners' reports to push output, eliciting elaboration, consolidating and reinforcing learning.

Target task 6's (My favourite television drama) complexity analysis describes three subtasks that may be used within a single lesson structure (see sections 6.5.2 and 6.5.5). Role division in the decision-making task forms part of the pre-task phase for the main narrative acting task, while the prediction task may form part of the pre- or post-task phase. Teachers may present formulaic expressions to learners along with picture frames encouraging learners to match or use the expressions with the picture frames in building a story. (Also see sections 4.4.1.1 and 7.3.2.2 for further discussions regarding formulaic expressions as learning strategies and communication strategies.)

Target tasks 6, 7 (*the soccer game*) and 8 (*a group role play*) represent narrative tasks with different genres, including television dramas, fables and sport reports. Maximum exposure to authentic target language input providing positive evidence, including listening, reading and watching stories or dramas, followed by pushed output and interactional corrective feedback through class or group discussion and questioning are external affordances for L2 learning. (See section 4.3 for a discussion of input and interaction as external individual language affordances.)

Target task 12 (A lesson on pollution) explores L2 learning through content subject learning activities (also see target task 11, appendix 11). Learner resource materials, including worksheets and textbooks, support interaction and afford noticing during content subject language learning tasks. Keck and Kim (2014) maintain that learners may discover regularities in form by exploring authentic texts. (In this regard, also see section 5.5.3 for a discussion of conscious-raising tasks.) However, it is the task design, task outcomes and teacher questioning

and feedback that push output and afford form-meaning mapping in appropriate contexts of use. (See sections 4.3.2, 4.4.1.1 and 5.5.3 for the role of interaction for noticing and focus on form in task-based L2 instruction of young learners.)

In summary, methodology, including lesson structure and task participatory structures, along with specific methods for affording learner engagement and noticing were examined within the target tasks' complexity analyses conducted in chapter 6. Flexibility in task-based teaching methodology permits the integration of varied task-based teaching approaches with regard for the reflective teacher's intervention, evaluating learning needs and promoting learner awareness in isiXhosa L2 learning.

7.3.2.2 Examples of formulaic language teaching activities

In task-based language learning, formulaic language knowledge affords task participation, more effective and appropriate learner interaction and pushed output in beginner learners. Wray (2008) maintains a model of formulaic language processing, describing multiword sequences as a form of lexis. De Bot (2004) describes lexical processing in a multilingual lexicon model with interlingual lexical transfer. Specific methodological activities, with reference to the target tasks' complexity analyses in chapter 6, suggest how theories regarding incidental learning and explicit formulaic language learning afford noticing in young beginner learners of isiXhosa L2, in the primary school intermediate phase. (See section 4.3.1 for a further discussion of language input and incidental language learning.)

Boers and Lindstromberg (2012) suggest awareness-raising activities, including typographical enhancement, etymological elaboration and translations, for incidental learning of formulaic language. They support oral or written provision of pragmatically and functionally useful formulas accompanying task input material. In target task 1 (*at the tuck shop*) formulaic expressions used for functions like *greeting*: **molo** (lines 18 and 20); *to apologize or appease*: **xolo** (lines 42 and 70); *politely requesting*: **ndicela** (lines 42 and 58); and *thanking or showing gratitude*: **enkosi** (line 38 and 75) are important for creating a socio-cultural acceptable tone. Fluency is afforded through context-specific formulaic expressions, including **ndingakunceda ngantoni**, *how can I help you* (line 20), **yimalini**, *what does it cost* (lines 22, 26, 34, 46, 54, 62), **ikhona enye into oyifunayo**, *is there anything else you want* (line 60), **hayi ayikho**, *no there isn't any* (line 44), and **nantsi**, *here it is* (lines 40, 58, 66, 72). The linguistic complexity analysis in section 6.5.4 of target task 6 (*my favourite television drama*) also identifies formulaic language that affords fluency and effective sequencing during storytelling, including **phambi**

koko, *before that* (line 31) and **enye into**, *something else* (line 56). In this task, there are also formulaic expressions that assist the participants in expressing their opinions: **ndivumelana nawe**, *I agree with you* (line 65), **andicingi**, *I don't think* (line 49) and **uchan' ucwethe**, *you're right* (line 68). In target task 9 (*class discipline*) formulaic expressions affords fluency during conflict situations, including **undiphoxile**, *you insulted me* (line 125), **andenzanga nto**, *I didn't do anything* (line 125), **uyaphosisa**, *you are mistaking* (line 89), and **yinyaniso le ndiyithethayo**, *I am telling the truth* (line 85). Similarly, in target task 6, there are numerous emotional exclamations that serve a sociopragmatic function, while also affording fluency during listening and speaking: **Yehaa!** (line 26) **Hayi, suka! Nyhani?** (line 29) **Ngenene** (31) **Kowu!** (line 40) and **Yhu!** (line 49). Expressing emotions are usually not planned, but rely on implicit knowledge that requires extensive, contextualized exposure to input. However, learners notice an idiomatic exclamation more readily due to its emotional salience (Myles, 2012).

Repeated meaningful use of word sequences affords implicit learning in young beginner learners. However, some explicit learning increases the learning rate and affords task participation and interaction. Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) propose the involvement load hypothesis, advancing better learning retention in accordance with learning need, effort and relevance. When formulaic expressions are explicitly learnt as part of the rules for playing a game, the relevance of the formulaic language affords retention. (See section 7.3.2.1 for the pedagogic suggestions regarding target task 1 illustrating a game task.) Need, effort and relevance also afford formulaic language learning retention in target task 9 (*class discipline*), where formulaic expressions form part of what Ellis (2012) refer to as framework goals in the classroom, which require transactional language frequently occurring when learners share materials and information, including **ndicela undiboleke**, *please may I lend* (line 32), **andinayo**, *I don't have it* (line 53), **sendigqibile**, *I have already finished* (line 141), and **enkosi undincedile**, *thank you for helping me* (line 59).

Analyzing various research studies on formulaic language learning, Boers and Lindstromberg (2012) maintain that explicit lexis learning is most successful when some of the words are familiar to the learners, when the meaning is explained or when L1 translations are given. Wray (2008) motivates young learners memorizing useful word strings by maintaining the added benefit of hiding linguistic irregularities, including those represented in the morphology of inflected nouns and adjectives. Target task 4's (*a new cellphone for my birthday*) complexity analysis identified formulaic language for exchanging birthday wishes and for learning task-

natural complex language structures, including nominal phrases that incorporate generic names, used when identifying and describing different cellphones and cellphone features, as well as personal likes, preferences and dislikes. (See section 6.4.4 and 6.4.5, particularly subtasks *a* and *d*.) Learning formulaic language for sharing good wishes on specific occasions is imperative, as it affords culturally appropriate expressions and provides a guide for setting a socially acceptable tone (Ellis, 2012, Timmis, 2010, 2013, Wray, 2008). In the target task's simulated dialogue, birthday wishes are expressed varying in complexity, but learning these language chunks hides complex morphosyntactic forms (see lines 28 and 36). The increasing popularity of cellular phones amongst South African youth, encouraged by the ever-improving cellphone models on the market and attractive advertisements flooding the printed and audio-visual media, affords task familiarity. This strengthens situational interest and motivation in young beginner L2 learners to participate and communicate, presenting opportunities for greater translanguage, metalinguistic and language awareness during task-based learning (Cenoz and Gorter, 2017). Ellis (2005a) further maintains that formulaic language is available for implicit learning, as well as for conscious analysis and use in creatively constructing novel utterances. (See section 4.2.2 for a further discussion of the explicit-implicit learning interface perspective.) Corcoll (2013) describes an activity where formulas are learnt expressing likes and dislikes. Learners read, write and recite a few lines in the target language and in their L1, describing objects that they like and don't like. They then repeat the activity using the formulas, but they have to replace the objects with their own creatively constructed opinions.

In sum, the communicative tasks' linguistic complexity analyses are examined to identify how incidental formulaic language learning is afforded by emotional or textual salience, as well as the role of task design and methodology evoking learner engagement that increases with learning need, effort and relevance affording learning retention. Explicit formulaic language learning is motivated and explored with reference to specific pedagogic activities for young beginner L2 learners.

Summarizing this section, teacher intervention is presented within a gradual, non-linear, differential L2 learning process as scaffolding learner attempts, pushing target language output and affording learning opportunities, moving learners towards more effective task-based language use and accuracy. Specific methodological activities are described in an attempt to consolidate different perspectives and theories regarding focus on form, methodology and formulaic language learning, informing L2 learning theory and task-based pedagogic practice. In the following section the central role of teachers in creating learning opportunities is explored

further within the affordances theory in task-based teaching, integrating Anderson's (2015) proposed affordances approach to lesson planning and the multilingual model for measuring language development, reflecting a more general commitment to language learning and multilingual education.

7.4 AN AFFORDANCES THEORY IN TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING

An affordances theory in task-based L2 teaching recognizes learning opportunities in task design, methodology and focus on form affording noticing and promoting multilingualism in learners with different language abilities in the L2 classroom. Anderson (2015) advances an affordance-based approach to lesson planning instead of an outcomes-based approach, suggesting a mind shift from a single-outcome-fits-all to a domain of affordances, presenting a number of diverse learning opportunities in a lesson for learners. He maintains that these learning opportunities may relate to communication skills, such as listening or writing, knowledge of the language system, including lexis, metacognitive skills, such as communicative and learning strategies, affective or social skills, including sharing ideas and planning, non-linguistic topic-related skills, and numeracy or literacy skills, including spelling, copying, summarizing and note-taking. This approach supports a general commitment to multilingualism in language learning and holistic education practices that rely on a common underlying language proficiency allowing interlingual transfer of cognitive and academic, literacy-related knowledge and skills (Cummins, 2007).

Language development is a continuous, non-linear, interlingual process in the multilingual individual (Larsen-Freeman, 2015). Larsen-Freeman maintains the dynamic, complex character of language development in the multilingual, considering bidirectional cross-linguistic transfer and multicompetence viewing language not as an object of study but as a meaning-making tool at work in every dimension of human existence. (See section 4.4.2.2 for a further discussion of multicompetence and the multilingual model for measuring L2 development.) As such, L2 learning is not just restricted to the L2 classroom, but instead an individual's languages and multicompetence development are inextricably linked to their personal, social, cognitive, academic and literacy development and, therefore, are ever present and ever developing. This view theoretically integrates cognitive and social perspectives on L2 development, including usage-based approaches, social identity theory and socio-cultural concepts like private speech. (See section 3.2.2.) In the primary school with its holistic educational goals, teachers scaffold young beginner L2 learners' language development in

relation to their emerging cognitive abilities, while creating learning opportunities for the advancement of social, academic and literacy skills.

In section 2.2.2, an affordances theory was described regarding the awareness phenomenon, arguing that teachers and learners must be more sensitive to affordances in the environment so as to identify learning opportunities and creatively facilitate more language affordances. An affordances theory in L2 learning applied to task-based teaching practice explores this awareness phenomenon within the complexity analyses in sections 6.2 – 6.8 of suggested isiXhosa target tasks for teaching young beginner learners in the primary school intermediate phase, making explicit various learning opportunities in terms of Anderson's (2015) proposed affordances approach to lesson planning. Inherent to all communicative tasks are learning opportunities to become more sensitive to target language input when hearing (or reading) the target language, as well as learning opportunities to become more confident in L2 production. Learning opportunities for the expansion, consolidation and reinforcement of implicit and explicit language system knowledge were examined in chapter 6 in the target tasks' linguistic analyses, and were presented in the recycling of the target tasks in terms of the SSARC model, as well as in the discussions regarding task design and teacher intervention affording noticing of language form (sections 7.2 and 7.3). Formulaic awareness-raising activities, such as was discussed in section 7.3.2.2, also present learning opportunities of communicative strategies for beginner learners. Social skills are developed through all task-based authentic interactions, however, the interactive complexity analysis target tasks 1 and 2 indicated interactants of different social status, while target task 9 presented a conflict situation creating learning opportunities for cultivating communicative skills in terms of specific social relations. Target task 10 (*school rules*, see appendix 10) includes a debating task that requires note-taking presenting metacognitive, skills-related learning opportunities. Target task 7 (*the soccer game*, see appendix 7) presents social and non-linguistic topic-related learning opportunities, when a physical game becomes the context for language use (Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2009). Target task 8's (*a group role play*, see appendix 8) task demands require metatalk regarding different literary elements, including characters, setting and dialogue, affording literary cognitive learning opportunities. Target task 13 also presents literary cognitive, as well as literacy skills-related learning opportunities, when the topic (*the provinces of South African*) is explored within different genres, including geographical atlases or tourism brochures, either for task support materials or as written genres for learner presentations. Target task 13 further presents learning opportunities to express emotions and responses of affirmation and denial in the target

language, developing affective skills responding to a stressful situation regarding a class test (see section 6.8.4). Target task 1's description specifications (section 6.2.1) include affordances for developing specific social and numeracy skills, considered as non-linguistic topic related learning opportunities, when the task participants have to enquire prices and work with a limited budget for purchasing lunch from the tuck shop. Also see the descriptions of specific methodological activities in section 7.3.2.1 for more learning opportunities with reference to these target tasks.

Summarizing this section, an affordances theory in L2 teaching views task design as a blueprint for creating the learning environment with language affordances, but interaction is the building blocks of the task process facilitating learner awareness and learner engagement with language. Specific methodological activities include various learning opportunities in relation to individual learner's abilities and learning needs, affording noticing, which is facilitated through the awareness phenomenon. This view regarding the awareness phenomenon in the affordances theory motivates teacher professional development in directing learners' attention to language affordances. When the second language is seen as a social and cognitive tool in primary schools and not just a subject of study, then every subject lesson is a task-based language lesson, and the L2 classes present learning opportunities integrating linguistic and non-linguistic topic related skills, developing multicompetence and affording multilingualism.

7.5 SUMMARY

In this chapter, task-based language teaching that affords noticing by supporting learner awareness of form during meaning focused task-based language learning was examined. Task-based literature and research in task design, task-based methodology and focus on form were reviewed, identifying affordances for noticing, however, advancing that acquisition is developmentally gated, relying on input that matches learners' dynamic individual abilities.

Task design affords noticing through learner-learner interaction, negotiating meaning during communication breakdowns, or through focused tasks evoking predetermined forms needed for conceptualizations required by cognitive task factors. Implicit focused tasks rely on a task-natural utility criterion of specific, predetermined forms for communicative activities with non-linguistic task outcomes. Explicit focused tasks require learner engagement with form during inductive grammar-focused tasks. Grammar interpretation tasks and cross-language interpretation activities affording metalinguistic awareness were explored for young learners,

while the use of metalanguage and explicit linguistic explanations were regarded for older, more analytic learners.

Teachers scaffold learners' task-based performances by presenting positive and negative evidence in the TL input, affording noticing through proactive and reactive focus on form. Focus on form can be implicit or explicit, and the salience of a structure, the learners' age and language aptitude, previous language experience and knowledge are important factors to consider when deciding on an effective focus on form method. Pedagogic tasks presenting communicative activities that create a learning environment with diverse language affordances were explored, considering the teacher's role in assessing learners' needs through reflective teaching practices that shape task-based methodology, including topic-related enabling skills, explicit and implicit formulaic language teaching, proactive focus on form and reactive focus on form practice.

Different views regarding the value of formulaic language learning and learning retention of word sequences were regarded, identifying emotional salience and need, relevance and effort that are afforded by task design and classroom related framework goals as significant factors. Learner familiarity with parts of word sequences and the conceptualization of the meaning and function of the formulaic expressions were advanced as affordances for learning and retention. These views were examined with reference to the pedagogic tasks analyzed in chapter 6.

This chapter explored an affordances theory in task-based language teaching, integrating various theoretical perspectives on language development. With reference to Anderson's affordances approach to lesson planning, it described learning opportunities in pedagogic tasks facilitated by task design and methodology, including improving language system knowledge, literary, literacy and metalinguistic knowledge, as well as developing affective, social, metacognitive and non-linguistic topic-related skills in the target language. The holistic nature of tasks affords a range of learning opportunities for individual learner uptake in task-based teaching.

Second language development literature describes awareness, noticing and understanding of linguistic forms as affording greater creativity and accuracy in L2 production. However, considering the diversity in learners' abilities and the dynamic nature of language competence, which determine individual learner readiness in L2 classrooms, supports an affordances theory in L2 learning that regards task-based language teaching with focus on form as presenting a set of affordances for noticing.

CHAPTER EIGHT

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

8.1 SUMMARIZING THE STUDY

In chapter 1, the aim, motivation and methodology of the study were described, identifying the approach adopted with transdisciplinary research efforts aiming to inform L2 learning and teaching theory and pedagogic practices, particularly in isiXhosa additional language learning in the Eastern Cape, South African context.

The affordances theory provided a methodological and explanatory framework for the study of complexity in task-based isiXhosa L2 learning in primary schools. In chapter 2, the construct of affordances in second language acquisition was analysed with reference to Gibson's classical affordance theory and other applications of affordances theory in multilingualism and second language learning studies. Language affordances exist as relationships between the learning context and the learner, creating opportunities for language use and language development. Multilingualism, language policy and the language curriculum were examined as criteria for investigating language affordances, identifying social, individual external and internal language affordances. The effectuation and creation of language affordances within these criteria were investigated in the literature of related research studies, indicating the interdependent functioning within and across different levels of positive social and individual affordances, creating a domain most favourable for language learning. These findings were applied to the specific context of the study, describing affordances in multilingualism, language policy and curriculum design for learning isiXhosa as a second language in primary school intermediate phase, in the Eastern Cape, South Africa.

Chapter 3 presented diverse theoretical perspectives on the nature of L2 learning, while supporting a multilingual approach to language competence. It was argued that an overview of social and cognitive approaches presenting different research foci, applying purposefully varying research methods, allows for a more comprehensive account of second language knowledge and learning mechanisms and processes, regarding the complex and dynamic nature of language development. Language competence was described as ever-developing, relying on a relationship between context-provided input and the individual learner's attentional focus and language processing mechanism. Language competence is a cognitive construct, but socially defined in terms of contextualized meaning representations, resulting from salience and frequency in form-meaning mapping processes that perceive similarity and autorestructures to

accommodate variance. The Cognition Hypothesis consolidates findings in task-based research, integrating social and cognitive approaches, while regarding individual language ability. Additionally, invoking a clear pedagogic utility value, the focus of the Cognition Hypothesis was described as manipulating input in terms of task design and task sequencing affording L2 development. The Cognition Hypothesis converged cognitive and social processes of scaffolding, complexity and noticing, allowing for individual differences and learner readiness relying on multilingual competence, presenting a framework for task design and task sequencing informing task-based teaching practices.

Chapter 4 explored instructed second language learning, describing internal and external learner factors as language affordances, making explicit the dynamic and complex nature of language development in a multilingual model of language competence. The developing cognitive and linguistic needs of the young learner, aged nine to twelve, were analysed with regard to implicit and explicit learning processes, and related to input in the instructed language setting, including teacher talk, methodology and learning resources. The importance of learner motivation, forming part of a broad view of language learning aptitude, for directing learner attention was described, supporting flexibility in task-based teaching methodology and materials development responding to individual learning needs and goals. Although recognizing implicit and explicit language knowledge as distinct L2 learning, the instructional context was described as falling on a continuum representing a convergence of implicit and explicit learning, resulting from dynamic shifts of attentional focus that is partly determined by age, proficiency and context. L2 learning literature and theories were reviewed, identifying implicit knowledge as necessary for fluent and efficient language use, while explicit knowledge allows for pushed output above the learner's current ability, permitting interaction and comprehensible input, affording noticing and implicit learning. In the instructed learning setting, these views inform teaching approaches, including meaning-focused and form-focused pedagogic practices. Language development was analysed according to the components of fluency, accuracy and complexity in task-based performance. Task complexity was explained as a language affordance, invoking Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Although, in primary school, the learner's age was identified as a negative affordance for abstract reasoning variables of task complexity. Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis was examined, and it was proposed that cognitive task complexity must match the young learner's cognitive development and language development. Measures of linguistic complexity or structural complexity, measured in general and specific terms, as well as measures of lexical complexity were explored in the literature.

Linguistic difficulty was defined as subjective learner perceivance of L2 difficulty, and motivated within the multilingual model, constituting negative language affordances. The importance of noticing for L2 development was supported with different perspectives in cognitive SLA literature, and motivated with regard to linguistic complexity and linguistic difficult.

Task-based L2 learning and teaching converges many of the important issues raised in the previous chapters, including the importance of noticing, interaction and contextualized meaning-making, with task-based research examining cognitive, interactional and social factors differentiating L2 development. In chapter 5, the properties of task and task design that afford L2 development in terms of fluency, accuracy and complexity were examined. Different task types and task taxonomies were described, representing differential task conditions and task aims. Research findings were discussed, identifying the relationship between different task design features and task performance. A task-based language teaching approach was described in terms of methodology, methods and a task-based syllabus design. The flexibility of task-based methodology was supported with reference to variation in lesson structure, participatory structures and balance between focus on meaning and focus on form. The affordances theory in task-based learning invoking the Cognition Hypothesis maintains that task complexity affords more interaction and effort conceptualizing meaning, resulting in noticing and uptake of input, and more complex and accurate L2 language production. However, positive and negative evidence in the input, constituting language affordances, are only perceived if they match learners' interests and needs, evoking intrinsic motivation. Additionally, language affordances have to match learners' language ability, relying on task grading. A task-based syllabus invoking the Cognition Hypothesis for task grading and task sequencing was analysed with regard to the specific cognitive, linguistic, social and educational needs of young learners, advancing appropriate task content, task-based methods and task complexity features as presenting a set of positive language affordances.

In chapter 6, cognitive and linguistic complexity in a task-based syllabus for young beginner isiXhosa L2 learners in primary school intermediate phase were analysed. Cognitive complexity measures, invoking the Cognition Hypothesis and its triadic componential framework, were analysed in the task description specifications of target tasks that were identified in terms of the affordances theory in L2 learning. The cognitive complexity analysis made explicit the tasks' processing demands in terms of conceptual demands, procedural demands and interactive complexity features, comprising subcomponents and enabling skills

necessary to standardize and scaffold learners' L2 performances. Additionally, the cognitive and interactive complexity analysis identified pedagogic task types relating to learners' communicative, social, cognitive and academic real-world needs. Simulated dialogues illustrating task natural language contents for these target tasks were analysed for general and specific measures of linguistic complexity. The linguistic complexity analysis was mainly conducted aiming to examine the cognitive-linguistic interface supporting the Cognition Hypothesis and its premises for grading and sequencing task-based syllabi solely based on task complexity, and to identify task natural forms that present task difficulty for isiXhosa L2 learners, motivating focus on form and focused communicative tasks in a hybrid task-based syllabus. The task complexity features of the 13 target tasks were summarized and compared in tabular form (see table 6.1), and indicated a strong correlation between cognitive, interactive and linguistic task complexity measures, as well as the importance of the context, task type, task mode and task focus (single or divided focus) in determining linguistic complexity. Task-based assessment was also described invoking the Cognition Hypothesis and the SSARC model, proposing dynamic performance-based assessment in terms of fluency, accuracy and complexity with an overarching goal of functional adequacy determining task achievement. The TtTaPa model for assessing production tasks were described and motivated from an integrated theoretical perspective, consolidating the current cognitive and linguistic complexity analysis with task-based literature and research findings investigating how task design affects task performance.

Chapter 7 examined affordances for noticing in task design and teacher intervention, including implicit and explicit focus on form with flexible task-based methodology. Throughout the chapter references were made to the target tasks' complexity analysis and pedagogic task versions (chapter 6), describing specific methodological activities for teaching young beginner isiXhosa L2 learners. These activities are meant as illustrations for pedagogic practice, supporting a perspective of awareness constituting the interface between task-based teaching and task-based learning. Different theories regarding learner interaction afforded in task design were examined, presenting affordances for noticing in unfocused tasks. Listen-and-do tasks, jigsaw tasks and narrative tasks with a framework or task outcome that necessitates the use of predetermined language forms were described as implicit focused tasks for young learners, while explicit and cross-language interpretation tasks were supported by research findings as appropriate explicit focused task design for young learners. The important role of the reflective teacher, identifying affordances for noticing by matching learner readiness and learning needs

with regard to task demands, affording learner awareness of language through reactive and proactive focus on form throughout all the phases of the pedagogic task, was supported describing flexibility in task-based methodology. Incidental and explicit formulaic language learning for young learners were described with reference to theories regarding noticing and learning retention. Formulaic L2 teaching was motivated with the affordances theory and processing theories supporting an explicit-implicit learning interface. The affordances theory in L2 teaching advances the awareness phenomenon, proposing that teachers and learners must be made aware of language affordances in the environment. This view supports focus on form affording learner awareness in task-based teaching, but it was also applied to teacher awareness for recognizing various learning opportunities in task-based teaching promoting holistic, multilingual pedagogic aims.

8.2 THE CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY OF COMPLEXITY IN TASK-BASED SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

Considering the complexity of factors and processes involved and dynamically interacting in second language (L2) learning and use necessitates a wider lens investigating diverse perspectives for providing a more comprehensive understanding of second language acquisition mechanisms and processes, informing L2 task-based teaching approach. However, to increase relevance for pedagogic practice requires focus, specifying variables identified in the particular context. This paradoxical objective of applied research is evident in the epistemological divide presented in quantitative and qualitative approaches. Aronin and Singleton (2012) consider the elements of setting, language and user to dynamically interact, constituting diversity in multilingualism. An affordances theory applied in the literary research provides a holistic complexity framework, while allowing a single-minded investigation identifying relevant factors regarding the unique properties of a particular instance.

This study aimed at identifying complexity features in young beginner task-based isiXhosa second language learning and use to describe the core components of L2 development that can enhance learners' performances. The study explored the principles of task-based L2 teaching for facilitating implicit knowledge and drawing learners' attention to accurate use of forms, where interaction affords focus on form, within a function-deciding task context with a primary focus on communicating meaning. The study examined communicative tasks, illustrating the relationship between cognitive, interactive and linguistic complexity, invoking Robinson's (2010) Cognition Hypothesis allowing for the grading and sequencing of task complexity matching learners' internal L2 developmental syllabi. The study showed how young beginner

L2 learners' attentional resources can be directed to restructuring and automatizing L2 knowledge within meaningful task-based learning through task design and focus on form teaching methods.

In chapter 2 the affordances theory for this study was explicated and motivated, advancing three principles applied to the research dimensions of identifying, perceiving, effectuating and creating affordances for second language acquisition as suggested by Aronin and Singleton (2012), for investigating multilingualism, language policy and curriculum design in general and particularly for the context of instructed L2 learning in primary school intermediate phase, in the Eastern Cape, South Africa. The principles of firstly, identifying learning needs and goals, secondly, furnishing language affordances in accordance to linguistic and cognitive ability, and, thirdly, considering the dynamic nature of affordances expressing a relationship between the stimulus and the processing mechanisms for perceiving and effectuating affordances motivated the application of the Cognition Hypothesis to task-based teaching regarding complexity as both a function of and an affordance for L2 development.

The Cognition Hypothesis integrates diverse perspectives on L2 development, most notably cognitive and interactive theories, yet supporting sociocultural theory informing L2 teaching practices. Task-based research investigating the properties and mechanisms of the mind, or meaning constructed in the social and cultural context describes L2 learning processes and product. The value of theoretical diversity is defined by its contribution to human knowledge that only acquires meaning in application, motivating the integration of SLA theory for improving L2 pedagogic practices. In chapter 3 and 4, the Cognition Hypothesis and its central construct, complexity, were described and motivated with reference to pertinent research findings as providing a theoretical rationale for task design and task sequencing that affords and assesses L2 development, impacting on a dynamic language competence representing the reciprocal relationship of all previous language knowledge and subsequent language exposure.

The study of complexity in task-based L2 learning and teaching distinguished four dimensions of complexity emerging as a result of an interaction between task factors, learner factors and language factors, namely task complexity, task difficulty, linguistic complexity and linguistic difficulty. Task complexity facilitates L2 development by making conceptual demands, affording linguistic complexity during language production. Task difficulty is a dynamic, subjective construct emerging as a product of the task demands and individual factors, including language aptitude and age. Background languages are positive or negative affordances for

linguistic difficulty, which is relative to the salience of the form-meaning relationship presented in the input. Linguistic complexity and linguistic difficulty motivate focus on form instruction in task-based L2 teaching and learning.

8.3 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY FOR THE FIELD OF SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

8.3.1 Contributions of the study

There is a need for greater integration of different theoretical perspectives in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) with more interdisciplinary research studies advocating a pedagogic impetus (Ellis and Shintani, 2014). Moral and economic accountability invoke research informing principled decisions in language policies and curriculum design promoting L2 learning and multilingualism. This study contributed to the SLA knowledge base, extending the psycholinguistic understanding of L2 learning through applied research that attempted to narrow the gap between theory and practice in task-based language learning and teaching.

The importance of defining the construct of noticing in second language acquisition, supporting a better understanding of human's capacity for L2 learning, is widely acknowledged (Ellis and Shintani, 2014, Godfroid, Housen and Boers, 2010, Ortega, 2009, Truscott and Sharwood Smith, 2011). This study applied Gibson's (1977) classical affordance theory to the input-intake relationship, explaining noticing as perceiving language affordances. (See section 2.2.2.) It supported Ellis and Shintani's (2014) view that noticing is necessary for language learning, but does not guarantee language acquisition. The implication of Gibson's affordance theory maintaining actions to indicate the effectuation of affordances for the study of complexity in L2 learning is that language use and language development indicate language acquisition. This principle was applied to dynamic language assessment and the creation of language affordances in task-based language teaching. (See sections 5.4 and 6.10.) A further application of Gibson's affordance theory that explores the construct of noticing regards the notion of implicit learning with young learners. Implicit language learning was advanced as noticing the language affordance and not the language properties. Language affordances were described in terms of learners' immediate and experiential needs, including communicative, social, cognitive and academic goals, motivating task contents and task-based methodologies for young beginner learners.

Considering the age and learning context of L2 learners in primary school intermediate phase (9 – 12 years) requires an emerging perspective on language learning processes that regards the

learners' cognitive development and metalinguistic instructional pedagogic aims. This study explored a continuum with implicit knowledge and explicit knowledge presenting the extreme opposites of language representations resulting from unconscious learning and grammar instructions, respectively. Although implicit and explicit language knowledge are considered distinct, this perspective recognizes numerous hybrid language knowledge representations analyzed in various degrees of consciousness lying in between on the continuum, representing the products of implicit and explicit learning processes collaborating and dynamically feeding into each other. Task-based language teaching approach was described accommodating different focus on form instruction methodologies, representing differentiated degrees of explicitness within a meaning-focused context. The balance between focus on meaning and focus on form depends on linguistic complexity and linguistic difficulty, which are functions of the task demands and the language properties, respectively, in relation to the learner's competence, informing pedagogic practices that afford noticing. The study explored task design manipulating the task features, as well as focus on form, shifting attentional resources from analytic processing to automatic processing, affording L2 development through task complexity.

The cognitive and linguistic complexity analysis of communicative tasks for young beginner isiXhosa L2 learners in primary school intermediate phase explored the application of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis in this particular instructed L2 learning setting. Integrating and consolidating various theories and research findings with this study's complexity analysis findings advanced the importance of contextual factors, task type, task goal, and discerning task design for effecting L2 performance in terms of different dimension of L2 development. This study reviewed these findings applying it to a framework for developing dynamic assessment tasks invoking Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis and SSARC model. The TtTaPa model is a preliminary proposal for language production assessment tasks for task-based language teaching of young beginner L2 learners.

An affordances theory in L2 teaching examined task-based language teaching incorporating focus on form with different degrees of explicitness for affording noticing in young beginner L2 learners, analyzing task design, methodology and formulaic language learning. Additionally, this approach advanced the importance of language as a meaning-making tool for realizing every dimension of development of young learners. An investigation of specific methodological activities supported an affordances theory in promoting multilingualism in primary school intermediate phase. It motivated the value of multicompetence by advocating

a view of language learning with a common underlying language proficiency and the role of holistic education practices facilitating interlingual transfer of cognitive and academic, literacy-related knowledge and skills.

A cognitive linguistic perspective informed the investigation of the relationship between task complexity, linguistic complexity and L2 development, describing task design properties for communicative tasks and grammar-focused communicative tasks for young beginner L2 learners. However, the investigation of complexity in task-based language learning and teaching of isiXhosa in primary school intermediate phase, recognized the importance of research findings in social perspectives and integrated various disciplines, consolidating different theories and research findings, to inform pedagogic practices in this particular context. This study has demonstrated how complexity in task-based L2 learning and teaching creates affordances for isiXhosa second language learning and multilingualism in primary school intermediate phase.

8.3.2 Areas for further research

The context of isiXhosa additional language learning in the primary school intermediate phase, in the Eastern Cape, South Africa includes L2 teaching of learners with various isiXhosa communicative abilities and language competence, including heritage learners and learners with typologically related background languages. The incorporation of translanguaging practices, including horizontal translanguaging for affirming multilingual learners' identities and pedagogic translanguaging or cross-language literacy education for promoting vertical access to power through standard written genres associated with higher education, is advanced in current literature (Cummins and Persad, 2014, Heugh, 2013, 2015, Heugh, Prinsloo, Makgamatha, Diedericks, Winnaar, 2017). Further research applying the affordances theory in L2 teaching is needed to identify affordances that answer in more advanced language learning needs, specifically accommodating learners with high isiXhosa communicative abilities in the additional language class.

The proposed TtTaPa model for task-based assessment was described and theoretically motivated. However, the application of the Cognition Hypothesis in dynamic assessment needs to be explored further, and the validity, reliability and feasibility of the suggestions presented in the TtTaPa model must be established quantitatively and qualitatively. Additionally, the affordance theory in task-based assessment recognizing the multilingual model for measuring L2 development requires further research exploring multilingual assessment, specifically with

regard to a common underlying proficiency, which allow for the transfer of cognitive or academic, literacy-related proficiency (Cummins, 2007, Gorter and Cenoz, 2017).

The important role of the teacher in creating learner awareness and affording noticing have been advanced and supported from various theoretical perspectives in this study. The importance and effectiveness of teacher training for changing teacher and learner identities, and for transforming pedagogic practices to promote multilingualism in schools are supported in current SLA perspectives and research findings (Cummins and Persad, 2014, Colpin and Gysen, 2006, De Costa and Norton, 2017, Higgins and Ponte, 2017, Kirwan, 2014). Research into effective teacher education and professional teacher development for implementing South African multilingual language policy and additional language curricula promoting multilingualism, and to further narrow the gap between SLA theory and pedagogic practice is needed. Task-based research in the South African primary school context must establish the feasibility of task-based teacher training and of the implementation of task-based language syllabi invoking the Cognition Hypothesis for this instructional L2 setting.

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APPENDIX 1

1 Incoko yabaninzi yokuqala:

2 Wena usevenkilaneni yesikolo, kwi”Tuck shophu” ngamanye amagama. Ubulisana
3 nonovenkile, aze abuze akuncede. Ufuna ukuthenga into yokutya, kodwa imali yakho
4 incinci. Ubuza amaxabiso ezinto ezithengiswayo ezithandwa nguwe ukuze uzikhethe
5 ezona zikufanele. Uchaza uhlobo lwazo, ibala lazo nendawo yasevenkileni zikhona kuyo.
6 Unovenkile aze akunike ezo uzifunayo. Uze ubhatalele izinto zakhe zokutya, kodwa imali
7 yakho incinci kunemali efunekayo. Kufuneka uyeke enye yezinto zakho zokuthenga.
8 Wakuphuma evenkileni uhlangana nabahlobo bakho ubarhalelise.

9 *You are at the school’s tuck shop. You and the shop owner greet each other and she*
10 *asks to help you. You want to buy something to eat, but you have little money. You ask*
11 *the prices of some of the things for sale that you like in order to choose what you can buy.*
12 *You describe the type, colour and place where the things are that you want. The shop*
13 *owner then gives you what you ask for. You then pay for your eats, but you do not have*
14 *enough money and have to return something. When you leave the shop, you join your*
15 *friends and tease them.*

16 Unovenkile: Olandelayo!

17 *(Next!)*

18 Umntwana: Molo mama!

19 *(Good morning, mam!)*

20 Unovenkile: Molo mntwan’am! Ndingakunceda ngantoni?

21 *(Good morning my dear! What can I get for you?)*

22 Umntwana: Yimalini ipakethi yeGo Slow¹ enkulu, mama?

23 *(How much for a big packet of Go Slow?)*

24 Unovenkile: Yi-R5.

¹ Go Slow is a popular flavoured maize snack.

- 25 *(It's R5.)*
- 26 Umntwana: Yimalini ipayi?
- 27 *(How much is a pie?)*
- 28 Unovenkile: Uyayifuna na iGo Slow?
- 29 *(Do you want the Go Slow's?)*
- 30 Umntwana: Xolo mama, ndibuza ixabiso lepayi kuqala.
- 31 *(Sorry, mam, but I first want to know how much it costs.)*
- 32 Unovenkile: Ufuna iSteak nekidney okanye isosejiroli?
- 33 *(Do you want a Steak and Kidney pie or a sausage roll?)*
- 34 Umntwana: Yimalini iSteak nekidney, mama?
- 35 *(How much for the Steak and kidney, mam?)*
- 36 Unovenkile: Lishumi lerandi.
- 37 *(It's ten rand.)*
- 38 Umntwana: Yhu! Iduru! Hayi, mandithathe iGo Slow, enkosi mama.
- 39 *(Wow! No that's expensive. Let me have the Go Slow's, thanks mam.)*
- 40 Unovenkile: Nantsi. Olandelayo!
- 41 *(There you go. Next!)*
- 42 Umntwana: Xolo mama, ndicela uhlobo lwetumato.
- 43 *Sorry, mam, please may I have the tomato flavour.*
- 44 Unovenkile: Hayi, ayikho.
- 45 *(No, there isn't any.)*
- 46 Umntwana: Kulungile, mama, ndiyithenge leyo. Yimalini iswiti?
- 47 *(That's fine, mam. How much for a sweet?)*

- 48 Unovenkile: Yeyiphi iswiti?
- 49 *(Which sweet?)*
- 50 Umntwana: Ezaa switi zipinki, zisecaleni kwaloo magungqu manyama.
- 51 *(Those pink ones next to those black jawbreakers.)*
- 52 Unovenkile: Ezi?
- 53 *(These?)*
- 54 Umntwana: Ewe, mama, yimalini inye?
- 55 *Yes, mam, how much are they for one?)*
- 56 Unovenkile: Yi-50 sentisi.
- 57 *(It's 50c.)*
- 58 Umntwana: Ndicela iiswiti ezimbini. Nantsi irandi.
- 59 *(Please may I have two. Here's one rand.)*
- 60 Unovenkile: Nazi. Ikhona enye into oyifunayo, ntombazana?
- 61 *(Here's your sweets. Anything else, my girl?)*
- 62 Umntwana: Yimalini istokswiti, mama?
- 63 *(How much are the suckers?)*
- 64 Unovenkile: Yi-R1,50.
- 65 *(They are R1,50.)*
- 66 Umntwana: Nantsi imali yam.
- 67 *(Here's my money.)*
- 68 Unovenkile: Uyashota.
- 69 *(It's not enough.)*
- 70 Umntwana: Xolo mama, mandiyiyeke istokswiti, ndithathe enye iswiti.

71 *(Sorry, mam, let me leave the sucker and have another sweet.)*

72 Unovenkile: Nantsi iswiti netshintshi yakho. Olandelayo!

73 *(Here's the sweet and your change. Next!)*

74 Umntwana: Enkosi mama! Niks mapha!

75 *(Thanks mam! No sharing!)*

76 Omnye umntwana: Sundirhalelisa, tshomi!

77 *(Don't make me jealous, girl!)*

APPENDIX 2

1 Incoko yabaninzi yesibini:

2 Wena nomhlobo wakho niyabizwa ngutitshalakazi. Utitshalakazi ucela ukuba nimnkele
3 umfundi omtsha, nize nimbonise isikolo, nimchazele yonke into nemithetho yokuziphatha
4 yasesikolweni neyaseklasini yakhe entsha. Niyavuma ukuyenza loo. Kuqala
5 niyambulisa, nize nimbuze igama lakhe. Niyamnkela kwaye niyaziswa. Nibuza igama
6 lesikolo sakhe esidala, nezinto azithandayo. Nimchazela imidlalo eminye nemisebenzi
7 yesikolo senu. Nimxelela iindawo idlalwa kuzo, amaxesha yenzwa ngawo, nootitshala
8 abayiphathayo. Nimbonisa iklasi yakhe nezinto ezikhoyo phakathi kwayo kwaye
9 nimalathisa ivenkilana yesikolo nendlela eya emagumbini angasese.

10 *The teacher asks you and your friend to welcome a new learner and to show her the*
11 *school and explain everything about her new school and classroom, as well as informing*
12 *her about some of the school sports and activities. You agree to do that. First you greet*
13 *her and ask her name. You welcome her and introduce yourselves. You ask the name*
14 *of her old school and her interests. You describe some of the school sports and activities,*
15 *the times when and where they take place and the teachers who are in charge. You show*
16 *her the classroom and the things inside, as well as pointing out the tuck shop and the*
17 *toilettes.*

18 Utitshalakazi: Lisa Matiti noZenande Mbontsi, ndicela nize apha e-ofisini.

19 *(Lisa Matiti and Zenande Mbontsi, please come to the office.)*

20 ULisa noZenande: Molo Titshalakazi Maqam!

21 *(Good day, Mrs Maqam!)*

22 Utitshalakazi: Molweni, mantombazan'! Ninjani namhlanje?

23 *(Good day, girls! How are you today?)*

24 ULisa noZenande: Siphilile, enkosi, Titshalakazi.

25 *(We are well, thank you mam.)*

26 Utitshalakazi: Lisa, Zenande, nanku uHlonela owaseMonti. Uyaqala apha kwesi sikolo
 27 namhlanje. Uza kufund' apha kwibanga lesine, kwiklasi yenu. Ndicela nimamnkele
 28 kakuhle, nimbonise iklasi yakhe, nimchazele yonke into ekufuneka eyazile. Mxeleleni
 29 imisebenzi yesikolo, namaxesha ayo, iindawo yenzwa kuzo, nootitshala abamfundisayo.
 30 Futhi nimalathisa ivenkilana yesikolo namagumbi angasese.

31 *(Lisa, Zenande, this is Hlonela. She's from East London². Today is her first day here at*
 32 *school. She is going to be in your class in grade 4. Please welcome her and show her*
 33 *her class. Explain to her everything she needs to know. Tell her about all the school*
 34 *activities, when and where they take place and the teachers who will teach her. Also*
 35 *show her the tuck shop and the toilettes.)*

36 ULisa noZenande: Kulungile, Titshalakazi James.

37 *(Yes, Mrs James.)*

38 ULisa: Molo, sisi, masihambe!

39 *(Hi, girl, let's go!)*

40 UZenande: Khawusixelele ungubani igama lakho?

41 *(Tell us what your name is?)*

42 UHlonela: NdinguHlonela Vela.

43 *(My name is Hlonela Vela.)*

44 UZenande: Molo sisi Hlonela! Wamkelekile apha eBalmoral Girls' Primary.
 45 NdinguZenande. Lo nguLisakhanya Matiti. Ufunde kwesiphi sikolo saseMonti?

46 *(Hallo Hlonela! Welcome to Balmoral Girls' Primary. I am Zenande and this is Lisakhanya*
 47 *Matiti. Which school were you at in East London?)*

48 UHlonela: Ndifunde kwaHudson Park³.

49 *(I was in Hudson Park.)*

² East London is a city in the Eastern Cape, South Africa.

³ Hudson Park is a primary and high school in East London.

50 ULisa: Udlale eyiphi imidlalo phaya?

51 *(What sports did you play there?)*

52 UHlonela: Ndithande ukudlala ihoki netenesi, nokuthatha inxaxheba kwikwayala,
53 nedrama.

54 *(I liked to play hockey and tennis, and taking part in choir and drama.)*

55 ULisa: Nam, ndiculela ikwayara, kodwa ndidlala ibhola yomnatha. Ukhona umbutho
56 wedrama kwesi sikolo osenokuba ungaya kuwo. Nangaya amabala emidlalo yonke.
57 Amabala ehoki asecaleni kwamabala ebhola yomnatha. Amabala etenesi asemva
58 kweholo yesikolo. Uyehla ngezaa zitep'si ukuya emabaleni emidlalo. Xa ufuna ukuya
59 eholweni, kufuneka uqale apha, uhambe nkqo, uze ubone ichibi lamanzi elincinci,
60 nebhanki yokuhlala phantsi kwemithi. Uza kugqitha kuyo, uze ubone ibala labantwana
61 abancinci lebhola yomnatha. Ecaleni lasekhohlo kwakho uza kubona isakhiwo esikhulu.
62 Yiholo leya. Ikwayara idla ngokuhlangana ngoMvulo nangoLwesithathu ngo2:30
63 eholweni. Ungafiki emva kwexesha, ngoba laa mama, yho, uyangxolisa!

64 *(Me too, I also sing in the choir, but I play netball. There is a drama society at this school,*
65 *which you may go to. There are all the all the sport fields. The hockey fields are next to*
66 *the netball courts. The tennis courts are behind the school hall. You go down with those*
67 *steps to go to the sport fields. If you want to go to the hall, then you start here and go*
68 *straight until you see the water pond with the bench under the tree. You will pass it and*
69 *then you'll see the little girls' netball courts. On your left side you'll see a big building.*
70 *That is the school hall. The choir usually meet on Mondays and Wednesdays at 2:30 in*
71 *the hall. Don't be late, because that teacher will shout at you!)*

72 UHlonela: Ndingavuya ndizibandakanya nekwayara. Ngubani osiculisayo?

73 *(I'll be glad to join the choir. Who takes the choir?)*

74 ULisa: Ngutitshalakazi Banzi. Nantsi ivenkilana yesikolo. Ivulwa ngamaxesha ekhefu
75 nangokuphuma kwesikolo. Nangaya namagumbi amantombazana angasese.

76 *(It is Mrs Banzi. Here is the tuck shop. It opens at break times and after school. Over*
77 *there are the girls' toilets.)*

78 UHlonela: Aphi amagumbi angasese?

79 (*Where are the toilets?*)

80 UZenande: Nangaya. Jonga ezantsi. Yihla ngepaseji uye kumnyango wokugqibela.

81 Uyawubona na?

82 (*There they are. Look over there. You go down the passage to the last door. Do you*
83 *see it?*)

84 UHlonela: Ewe, ndiyawabona ngoku.

85 (*Yes, now I see them.*)

86 ULisa: Hayi ke, masiqhubeke kwiklasi yethu. Zintathu iiklasi zebanga lesine. Sikhulu

87 kangakanani isikolo saseHudson Park?

88 (*Right then, let's continue to our classroom. There are three grade 4 classes. How big*
89 *is Hudson Park School?*)

90 UHlonela: Hayi, siyafana nesi.

91 (*No, it's about the same as this school.*)

92 ULisa: Nantsi eyethu iklasi! Masikrobe ngefestile, ngoba apha kwesi sikolo asikwazi

93 ukungena xa engekho utitshala eklasini.

94 (*Here is our class! Let's look through the window, because at this school we are not*
95 *allowed in the classroom when there's no teacher.*)

96 UHlonela: Zininzi iidesika. Bangaphi abantwana bale klasi yethu?

97 (*There are many desks. How many children are in our class?*)

98 UZenande: Sibangama-24. Kodwa zikhona iidesika ezimbini eziphambili kweklasi

99 ezigcinelwa abafundi xa bephazamise abanye kwaye akukho mntu uhlala edesikeni
100 ecaleni kwam. Mhlawumbi yeyakho yona!

101 (*We are 24. But there are two desks in the front for children who disrupt the lesson, and*
102 *no one's sitting in the desk next to me. Maybe that's where you'll sit!*)

103 UHlonela: Intle le klasi. Ndiyayithanda ngakumbi ngoba inemifanekiso enamabalabala
104 neepowusta ezininzi eludongweni.

105 *(This class is very pretty. I like it especially because it has so many colourful pictures and*
106 *posters on the wall.)*

107 ULisa: Iipowusta ezininzi ozibonayo zenziwe ngabantwana. Jonga nantsiya ipowusta
108 yam yongcoliseko. Yileyo powusta ebomvu ephezulu kweshelfu yeencwadi ngasekoneni.

109 *(Many of those posters were made by the children. Look over there is my posture about*
110 *pollution. It's that red poster above the book shelf in the corner.)*

111 UHlonela: Hayi, tshomi, intle laa powusta yakho.

112 *(That is a very nice poster, my friend.)*

113 UZenande: Zimbini ezam iipowusta ezixhonywa eludongweni. Uyayibona iwatshi yeklasi
114 yethu leya phezu kwebhodi emhlophe phambili eklasini?

115 *(I have two of my posters on the wall. Do you see the class watch above the white board*
116 *in the front of the class room?)*

117 UHlonela: Ewe.

118 *(Yes.)*

119 UZenande: Yebo. Ecaleni lasekunene kwayo, kukho ipowusta ebhlowu. Yebo? Enye
120 yeepowusta zam isecaleni kwaloo. Yipowusta emhlophe eyokutya okuphilileyo. Enye
121 yezam isecaleni kwefestile yesibini yangasemva kweklasi. Leya imnyama nebomvu.
122 Yipowusta yam yongcoliseko. Uyazibona?

123 *(Right. On its right side, there's a blue poster. Yes? One of my posters is next to that*
124 *one. It is a white poster of healthy food. My other one is next to the second window at*
125 *the back of the class. That one is black and red. It is my pollution poster. Do you see*
126 *them?)*

127 UHlonela: Ndizibone zombini. Zintle nazo.

128 *(I saw both. They are also nice.)*

129 UZenande: Nantsi intsimbi yesikolo, iyakhala! Simel' u'khawuleza siye eholweni.
130 NgoMvulo siqala sihlanganele ukucula eholweni.

131 *(It's the school bell ringing! We should hurry to the hall. On Mondays we first meet in the*
132 *hall for singing.)*

APPENDIX 3

1 **Incoko yabaninzi yesithathu:**

2 (a) Ngexesha lekhefu, wena kunye nabahlobo bakho niyafuna indawo yokuhlala phantsi,
3 ukuze nincokole, ngelixa nisitya ilantshi yenu. Kukho iindawo zokuhlalela ezahlukeneyo
4 zasebaleni lokudlala, kodwa kufuneka ukuba nivumelana nonke. (b) Wena umazisa
5 umfundi omtsha oqale ngale mini kwisikolo senu kubahlobo bakho. Ubaxelela igama
6 nefani yakhe, indawo avele kuyo nebanga lakhe. Niyambulisa, nibuze iklassi notitshala
7 wakhe, isikolo sakhe esidala, ikhaya, ifemeli nesiduko sakhe. (c) Uze ucele ukuba
8 achaze iyunifomu yesikolo sakhe esidala. Nincokola ngeeyunifomu zezikolo
9 ezahlukeneyo enizithandayo. (d) Kubekwa iminqweno emihle kumhlobo wenu omtsha,
10 acelwe adlale nani umdlalwana omnandi, wamnkelekile ngale ndlela.

11 *(a) At break time, you and your friends are looking for a place to sit down together to chat*
12 *while you are eating your lunch. There are many places to choose from, but you all need*
13 *to agree on one. (b) You introduce a new learner at your school to your group. You tell*
14 *them her name and surname, where she came from and her grade. Your group greet*
15 *her, ask about her class and teacher, her old school, her home and her family. (c) You*
16 *then ask her to describe her old school's uniform. You chat about the different school*
17 *uniforms. (d) You make her feel welcome by wishing her well and asking her to play with*
18 *you.*

19 UZenande: Yizani, tshomi, masihlal' apha ezitepsini.

20 *(Come friends, let's sit here on the steps.)*

21 UZethu: Hayi-hayi-hayi! Ilanga lishushu, noti apha! Masibheke phaya ngasemithini,
22 sihlale emthunzini.

23 *(It's too hot here in the sun. Let's rather go over there by the trees and sit in the shade.)*

24 UZenande: Phi?

25 *(Where?)*

26 UZethu: Ngapha, ezantsi ebaleni.

27 *(There at the bottom of the field.)*

28 UZenande: Ayisekude, sisi. Masiye sihlale apho phantsi kwaloo mithi efutshane nalapha.

29 *(It's too far, friend. Let's go and sit there under those trees that are closer.)*

30 UZethu: Akukho ndawo 'pha, sekugcwele ngabantwana.

31 *(There's no place left, it's already taken.)*

32 USiki: Andiyithandi indawo leya ingezantsi ebaleni, ngoba ayikho into ekuhlalwa kuyo
33 phantsi kwemithi. Kaloku iyuniformu yam iza kuba mdaka.

34 *(I don't like that place at the bottom of the field, because there's nothing to sit on under*
35 *the trees. My uniform will get dirty.)*

36 UHlumela: Hayi 'bo! Siki, ilanga liyatshisa namhlanje. Uze ungahlali phantsi xa
37 uxhalabile ngeyuniformu yakho.

38 *(O please, Siki! The sun is very hot today. You don't have to sit down if you are worried*
39 *about your uniform.)*

40 UZethu: Yekani oku kuphikisana kwenu, ixesha lekhefu liza kuphela msinyane!
41 Khawulezani sihambe!

42 *(Stop arguing, break will finish soon. Hurry, let's go!)*

43 UZenande: Nanku uLisa. Uhamba nabani na? Andimazi.

44 *(There's Lisa. Who's with her? I don't know her.)*

45 UHlumela: Ngumfundi omtsha. Sisi MaMtshawe! Yizani apha, nihlale nathi!

46 *(It's a new student. Sisi MaMtshawe, come here and sit with us!)*

47 ULisa: Molweni, boosisi! Ninjani?

48 *(Hello girls! How are you?)*

49 UZethu: Siphilile, tshomi. Ngubani lo uhamba nawe?

50 *(We are well. Who is this you are with?)*

51 ULisa: Lo nguHlonela Vela. Uvela eMonti. Uqala apha esikolweni sethu namhlanje.
52 Uza kufunda kunye nathi kwibanga lesihlanu. UHlonela ukhathazekile kakhulu uziva
53 eyedwa esalahleka kwinto yonke yasesikolweni sethu.

54 (*This is Hlonela Vela. She comes from East London⁴. It is her first day here at our school*
55 *today. She will be in Grade 5 with us. Hlonela is very worried as she doesn't know the*
56 *school yet.*)

57 USiki: Molo Hlonela! Unjani, sisi?

58 (*Hello Hlonela! How are you?*)

59 UHlonela: Molweni! Hayi, ndisaphila, unjani wena?

60 (*Hello! No, I'm fine, how are you?*)

61 USiki: Ndiphilile, sisi, a'kho nto. Ndiyathemba ukuba wonwabile apha kwesi sikolo sethu.
62 Wonke umntu unobubele. Musa ukuba neentloni, uyeva?

63 (*I am well, no problem, girl. Hope you are happy here at our school. Everyone's friendly.*
64 *Don't be shy, you hear?*)

65 UHlonela: Enkosi, sisi. Hayi yonke into intle kwaye ootitshala nabantwana banobubele.

66 (Thanks. No, it's all nice and everyone is kind.)

67 UZethu: Ngubani utitshala wakho?

68 (*Who's your teacher?*)

69 UHlonela: NguNkosikazi Ndlovu.

70 (*It's Mrs. Ndlovu.*)

71 USiki: Bani?

72 (*Who?*)

73 UZethu: NguNdlovu. Laa mama mde ofundisa iziBalo.

⁴ East London is a city in the Eastern Cape, South Africa.

74 *(It's Ndlovu. The tall one who teaches Maths.)*

75 USiki: Wandiqeqesha isikwashi ngonyaka ogqibileyo. Ulungile utitshalakazi Ndlovu,
76 kuba unenceba xa umntwana enengxaki. Mhle yena. Kodwa owethu utitshala, he-e!
77 UHlanjwa ungqongqo. Yena uyathanda ukusingxolisa.

78 *(She was my squash coach last year. Teacher Ndlovu is good, because she understands*
79 *when you have a problem. She's nice. But our teacher! Hlanjwa is strict. He likes to*
80 *shout at us.)*

81 UHlumela: Ungumamni 'siduko sakho, sisi?

82 *(Which clan⁵ do you belong to?)*

83 UHlonela: NdinguMaDlamini.

84 *(I am a Dlamini)*

85 Hlumela: Tyhini! Nam, ndinguMaDlamini. Dade wethu, wamkelekile apha! Kanene uhlala
86 phi na apha eKomani?

87 *(No, really? So am I. Welcome here, sister. Where are you staying in Queenstown?)*

88 UHlonela: Ndihlala nomakhulu endlini yakhe yaseZibeleni. Umam'am usandul' ukuqala
89 umsebenzi omtsha eRhawuthini.

90 *(I am staying with my grandmother at her home in Ezibeleni⁶. My mother recently got a*
91 *new job in Jo'burg⁷.)*

92 UZenande: Nam ndihlala eZibeleni, eZone 2. Ukhe wayikhwela ibhasi yabafundi
93 abasuka eZibeleni?

94 *(I also stay in Ezibeleni, in Zone 2⁸. Have you taken the school bus from Ezibeleni?)*

⁵ The clan name is an ancestral name.

⁶ Ezibeleni is a suburb of Queenstown, in the Eastern Cape, South Africa.

⁷ Jo'burg or Johannesburg is a big city in Gauteng, South Africa.

⁸ A zone is a neighbourhood within some suburbs.

95 UHlonela: Hayi, andiyazi yona. Ndize esikolweni kunye nomakhulu namhlanje,
96 besikhwele iteksi.

97 *(No, I don't know it. I came to school by taxi with my grandmother today.)*

98 UZenande: Zininzi izithuthi ezisuka eZibeleni ukuza esikolweni, kodwa kumnandi
99 ukuhamba ngebhasi yesikolo, ngoba sibandinzi abantwana besikolo sethu abakhwela
100 kuyo.

101 *(There are a lot of transport from Ezibeleni to school, but it's nice travelling with the school*
102 *bus, because there are many children from our school on it.)*

103 Hlonela: Nceda, uchazele umakhulu wam ngalaa bhasi yabafundi, ngoba ndisafuna
104 itranspoti yokuza esikolweni. Ndiza kuvuya ndihamba kunye nawe sisiza esikolweni
105 kusasa.

106 *(Please explain to my grandmother about the school bus, because I do not have any*
107 *transport to school yet. I like to come to school with you in the morning.)*

108 UZenande: Hayi, ilula loo nto. Ina, nantsi inombala yeselulafowuni kamama. Umakhulu
109 wakho angamfowunela umama wam, amchazele yonke into.

110 *(That's no problem. Here is my mother's cellphone number. Your grandmother can*
111 *phone her and she will explain everything to her.)*

112 UHlonela: Enkosi, Zenande, uyandinceda kakhulu.

113 *(Thank you, Zenande, that will be a great help to me.)*

114 UZethu: Hlonela, ubufunda phi eMonti?

115 *(Hlonela, where did you school in East London?)*

116 UHlonela: Bendifunda eHudson Park Primary.

117 *(I schooled at Hudson Park Primary.)*

118 USiki: UHudson Park, sesaa sikolo esiluhlaza ngeyuniformu?

119 *(Is Hudson Park that green uniform school?)*

120 UZenande: Hayi, yiSterling⁹ eluhlaza.

121 *(No, Sterling is green.)*

122 USiki: Ibinjani iyunifomu yaseHudson Park? Linjani ibala layo?

123 *(What was the uniform like at Hudson Park? What colour is it?)*

124 UHlumela: Hayi bo, Siki! Wena neyunifomu yakho! Uyazithanda kakhulu izinxibo
125 ezintle!

126 *(Really, Siki! You and your uniform! You like nice clothes too much!)*

127 USiki: Ndiyathandabuza nje, sisi Hlumela! Su'mphazamisa efuna ukundiphendula
128 uHlonela.

129 *(I am just wondering, Hlumela! Don't interrupt Hlonela when she wants to answer me.)*

130 UHlonela: Ilokhwe yesikolo yam ibibomvu namhlophe. Ibinebanti eliqhinwe ngeqhina
131 esinqeni. Besinxibe nebleyiza yesikolo ebomvu eHudson Park Primary.

132 *(The school dress was red and white. It had a belt that's tied with a knot at the waist. We
133 also wore a red school blazer at Hudson Park Primary.)*

134 USiki: Nantso ke into entle kangaka! Kutheni singenayo ibleyiza yesikolo apha kwesi?

135 *(Now there's a very nice thing! Why don't we have a school blazer at our school?)*

136 UZenande: Abafundi bamabanga aphakamileyo bona banxibe iibleyiza, kodwa thina
137 sisebancinci. Kutshilo.

138 *(The high school students wear blazers. They say we are still too young.)*

139 USiki: Hayi, suka, asikho bancinci! Ndiyayinqwenela ibleyiza yesikolo nokuba uthetha
140 ntoni.

141 *(Nonsense, we are not too little! I wish we could also have a school blazer, no matter
142 what you say.)*

⁹ Stirling is a school in East London, in the Eastern Cape, South Africa.

143 UZenande: Mna, ndithanda ibala lebhlowu leyuniformu yethu.

144 *(Me, I like the blue colour of our uniform.)*

145 UHlonela: Nam, ndiyalithanda.

146 *(I like it too.)*

147 UZethu: Masidlale iblack toti¹⁰!

148 *(Let's play black tin!)*

149 Hlumela: Uyakwazi ukudlala iblack toti, sisi MaDlamini?

150 *(Do you know how to play black tin, sister Dlamini?)*

151 UHlonela: Ewe, ndiyakwazi kakhulu!

152 *(Yes, I know very well how to play!)*

153 UZethu: Kumnandi! Phakamani, Siki, masidlale!

154 *(Nice! Get up girls, let's play!)*

¹⁰ Black toti is a popular playground game of tag, but players use a soft object to throw at each other to 'tag' them.

APPENDIX 4

Incoko yabaninzi yesine:

Ngumhla wakho wokuzalwa. Itshomi yakho ikunqwenelela imini entle. Nabanye abahlobo bakho xa besiva le ndaba imnandi, babeka iminqweno emihle kuwe. Ubaxelela ngetheko lakho lokuyivuyiselana nefemeli imini yakho yokuzalwa. Itshomi yakho ibuza ifowuni yakho ukuba uyifumane phi? Umxelela ukuba uyiphiwe nguyihlo sisipho sangemini yakho yokuzalwa. Abahlobo bakho bayabuka iselulafowuni yakho bekuncoma kungenxa yethamsanqa lakho. Omnye uphethe eyakhe, kodwa abanye abangenazo. Bona abanqwanela iselula, bachaza izizathu zokungakayifumani nabacebo abo okuyifumana. Wena nabahlobo bakho nincokola ngeeselula. Niyathelekisa iiselula zenu nezakokwabo neempawu zazo ezibanga umdla kwaye nithetha ngezona selula zintle zithandwa nina. Wena netshomi yakho nixelelana iinombolo zenu zeeselfowuni ukuze nifowunelane.

(Today is your birthday. Your friend wishes you a happy birthday. Your other friends also congratulate you when they hear that it's your birthday. Your friend asks you where you got your phone from. You tell her that it was as a birthday present from your dad. Your friends admire your phone and congratulate you on your good fortune. You and your friends talk about cellphones. One of your friends has her own phone, but the others don't and wish they also had. They explain the reasons why they don't have a phone yet and describe their plans for acquiring their own phones. You compare the different features of your phones as well as those of your siblings and talk about the phones you like most. Then you exchange cellphone numbers with your friend so you can phone each other.)

UUviwe: Hi zitshomi zam! Ninjani na namhlanje? Heyi, Anda, asiyomini yakho le yokuzalwa?

(Hi my friends! How are you today! Hey, Anda, isn't it your birthday today?)

UAnda: Ewe, tshomi, yiyo le namhlanje.

(Yes, friend, it is today.)

28 UUviwe: Min' emnandi kuwe, tshomi yam!

29 *(Happy birthday, my friend!)*

30 UPhelele: Nithini na? Yimini yokuzalwa kaAnda namhlanje? Yhu! Unangaphi
31 namhlanje, Anda?

32 *(What was that? Is it Anda's birthday today? Congratulations! How old are you today,*
33 *Anda?)*

34 UAnda: Ndine-11.

35 *(I am 11.)*

36 UPhelele: Ulonwabele usuku lwakho, Anda mhlobo wam! Ukhule, ungakhokhobi!
37 Uyeva?

38 *(Happy birthday, my friend! Hope you have many more.)*

39 UJabu: He wethu, usiphathele ikeyiki, ukuze sitye kamnandi ngemini yakho?

40 *(Hey sister, did you bring us any birthday cake?)*

41 UAnda: Xolani, andiyiphathanga. Umama uza kundithengela ikeyiki ngempelaveki,
42 ndivuyisane nezizalwane zam.

43 *(Sorry guys, I didn't bring any cake. My mom will buy the cake on the weekend when I*
44 *celebrate with my family.)*

45 UPhelele: Niza kuthini?

46 *(What are you doing for your birthday?)*

47 UAnda: Andiqinisekanga, kodwa umalume wam nabazala bam beza ngoMgqibelo.
48 Bakufika siza kubraya, sibhiyozela umhla wokuzalwa kwam.

49 *(I am not sure yet, but my uncle and cousins are coming on Saturday. When they arrive*
50 *we will braai¹¹ and celebrate my birthday.)*

¹¹ In South Africa to braai or barbeque meat is a very popular way to entertain guests and socialize.

51 UUviwe: Yintoni leyo uyiphethe entle ebhlowu?

52 *(What is that blue thing you've got there?)*

53 UAnda: Yifowuni yam entsha. Utata undinike isipho ngemini yam yokuzalwa iselulafoni
54 entsha.

55 *(It's my new phone. My dad gave me a cellular phone for my birthday.)*

56 UUviwe: Yiselula entsha! Akuvuyi mhlobo wam! Nam ndinqwenela iselula enjalo, kodwa
57 andinayo, ngoba utata uthi ndiyoyifumana xa ndine-16. Kusedala kude ndiye
58 ndiyifumane.

59 *(A new cellular phone! Aren't you lucky, my friend! I also wish I had one like that, but my*
60 *dad says I'll get one when I am sixteen. It is still so long till I get it.)*

61 UJabu: Yhu, ayisentle! Ndiphe ukuze ndibone injani na.

62 *(Wow, it's nice! Let me see.)*

63 UPhelele: Ndiyawuthanda umbala wayo obhlowu okwesibakabaka. Loluphi uhlobo
64 lweselula le yakho?

65 *(I like the colour. What kind of phone is it?)*

66 UAnda: YiSamsung.

67 *(It's a Samsung.)*

68 UPhelele: Ndisagcina imali yokuzithengela iselfowuni. Ndifuna iSony ukuze ndifumane
69 iInstagram.

70 *(I am still saving to buy myself a cellphone. I want a Sony so I can get Instagram.)*

71 UJabu: Uyakwazi ukutwitha nomikhsithi ngefowuni yakho, Anda?

72 *(Can you twitter and mixit¹²?)*

¹² Twitter and Mixit are social networking platforms used on cellular phones.

73 UAnda: Hayi, ayinakho. Kodwa inekhemera nerediyo. Ndikhetha ukumamela umculo
74 kwaye ibhetri yayo iyagcina kade phezu kuneNokia kadade wam.

75 *(No, it can't, but it has a camera and a radio. I like to listen to music and its battery lasts*
76 *longer than my sister's Nokia.)*

77 UJabu: Eyam yiNokia 530 Smart phone. Yeyona selulafowuni intle. Inazo zonke kwaye
78 ukunxibelelana ngelIntanethi akubizi mali.

79 *(My phone's a Nokia 530 Smart phone. It's the best cellphone! It's got everything and*
80 *you use the Internet so it's very cheap to chat.)*

81 UPhelele: Udadewethu yena uneSony Xperia M4! Yona inekhemera ene5 mega piksel!
82 Futhi imelana namanzi! Ndiyathanda uSony mna kangangokuba andiyifuni enye ifowuni
83 ngaphandle kweSony.

84 *(My sister has a Sony Xperia M4! It has a camera with 5 mega pixels! And it is waterproof!*
85 *As for me, I like Sony so much that I don't want any other phone but Sony.)*

86 UUviwe: Utata wam unetebleti eyiSamsung Galaxy. Ndiyayithanda ngoba inkulu
87 okweTivi encinci. Iyadlala nevidiyo yomculo.

88 *(My dad has a Samsung Galaxy tablet. I like it because it is almost like a little TV. It can*
89 *also play music videos.)*

90 UPhelele: Imhlophe okanye imnyama? Mna, ndiyayithanda leya imhlophe.

91 *(Is it white or black? I like the white ones.)*

92 UUviwe: Imnyama yekatata, kodwa inayo ikhava eyikhuselayo ebomvu.

93 *(It's black, but he has a red cover to protect it.)*

94 UJabu: Hayi ke, tshomi, ngoku ndiza kukwazi ukukufowunela. Ithini inamba yakho?

95 *(Well, Anda, now I can phone you. What's your phone number?)*

96 UAnda: Yi- 081 566 1100. Khawundiphe eyakho ndize ndiyingenise kwiselula yam.

97 *(It is 081 566 1100. Can I have yours too then I'll enter it into my cell.)*

98 UJabu: Eyam yi- 073 5...

99 *(Mine is 073 5...)*

100 UAnda: Khawume kancinci. Kulungile, khawuphinde, ubuthini: u-0-7 nton-nton?

101 *(Just a moment. Right, what is it again: 0-7 something?)*

102 UJabu: U-073 588 4201.

103 *(073 588 4201.)*

APPENDIX 5

1 **Incoko yabaninzi yesihlanu:**

2 (a) Ubulisa abahlobo bakho ababini, nibuzane impilo. (b) Abahlobo bakho bamamela
3 umculo omnandi kwiiselulafowuni zabo. Nincokola ngomculo, iingoma nangeemvumi
4 abazithandayo. (c) Ucela umhlobo wakho akudlalele ingoma ethile oyithandayo. (d)
5 Niyajayiva kamnandi kwaye omnye umhlobo wakho unibonisa eyona ndlela inobuchule
6 yokujayiva.

7 (a) You greet your friends and you enquire after each other's wellbeing. (b) Your friends
8 are listening to music on their cellular phones. You talk about music, songs and the artists
9 that you like. (c) You ask your friend to play a certain song that you like. (d) You dance
10 nicely and one of your friends shows you the latest moves.

11 UThimna: Molweni, tshomi! Ninjani na?

12 *(Hi, friends! How are you guys?)*

13 UUnako: Molo Thimna! A'kho'nto. Wena, uphilile na?

14 *(Hello Thimna! All's well. And you, how are you?)*

15 UThimna: Ndiphilile, enkosi, tshomi. Nimamele ntoni?

16 *(I'm fine, thanks, girlfriend. What are you listening to?)*

17 USiya: Yeyona ngoma intsha kaOne Direction¹³. Yi-"Love you goodbye".

18 *(It's the latest One Direction song. It's "Love you goodbye".)*

19 UThimna: Unayo laa ngoma intsha kaJustin Bieber¹⁴, Siya, ngu"Love yourself"?

20 *(Do you have that new Justin Bieber song, Siya, it's "Love yourself"?)*

21 USiya: Ewe, ndinayo. Uyayithanda?

22 *(Yes, I have it. Do you like it?)*

¹³ One Direction is a popular music boy band.

¹⁴ Justin Bieber is a young, male singer.

- 23 UThimna: Ewe, kakhulu, ngaphezu ko-“Love you goodbye”.
- 24 *(Yes, I love it, more than “Love you goodbye”).*
- 25 UUnako: Nikhe nayimamela ingoma entsha kaAdele¹⁵ esithi: “Rumour has it”?
- 26 *(Have you guys listened to Adele’s new song “Rumour has it”?)*
- 27 USiya: Ewe, ndiyayazi. Imnandi.
- 28 *(Yes, I know it. It’s nice.)*
- 29 UThimna: Siya, ndicela usidlalele u”Love yourself”... Nantso ke!
- 30 *(Please, Siya, play “Love yourself” for us”... That’s it!)*
- 31 UUnako: Tyhini sisi, uyakwazi ukujayiva!
- 32 *(Hey, girlfriend, but you can jive¹⁶!)*
- 33 UThimna: Enkosi, tshomi, kodwa uSiya yena uyinkcutshe. Phakama, Siya, usibonise
- 34 ikasi-bhengu.
- 35 *(Thanks, my friend, but Siya is the real expert. Get up, Siya, show us ikasi-bhengu¹⁷.)*
- 36 USiya: Yiza nawe, Unako!
- 37 *(Come you too, Unako!)*
- 38 Unako: Vulela uMi Casa¹⁸, Siya, uChocolat.
- 39 *(Play Mi Casa, Siya, Chocolat.)*
- 40 UThimna: Ndithini? Ndenze njani?
- 41 *(How do I do it? What do I do?)*

¹⁵ Adele is a popular female singer.

¹⁶ “Jive” is a slang expression for modern dancing.

¹⁷ Kasi-bhengu is a style of dancing.

¹⁸ Mi Casa is a South African music band.

42 USiya: Beka ngaphambili umlenze wakho njalo; unyathele kabini, uze uphinde
43 uwubuyise. Uze ubeke omnye ngaphambili. Nantso ke, njengomnye; wushukumise.
44 Uchanile!

45 *(Put your one leg forward like this; then step twice, and bring it back again. Now put your*
46 *other leg forward. That's it, just like the other one; shake it. You've got it!)*

47 Unako: Siqwabeleni izandla, tshomi, masijayive! Huntsu-huntsu!

48 *(Come on guys, clap for us, let's jive! Nice!)*

APPENDIX 6

1 **Incoko yabaninzi yesithandathu:**

2 Udibana nabahlobo bakho esikolweni phambi kokuqala kwaso. Bayadlala intsomi
3 besenza ngathi bangabadlali benkqubo yetivi. Ucela ukuba ungene ekudlaleni kwabo.
4 Nincokola ngowona mdlalo oye wabukelwa nina kwitivi usitsho kwinkqubo yeNext Step
5 kwaye nichaza ngoobani abadlalela endaweni kowuphi umdlali wale intsomi. Wena
6 khange uyibukele inkqubo yemini edlulileyo. Abahlobo bakho bakuchazela ukuba
7 kwenzeka ntoni kule nkqubo yetivi izolo. Nixelana izimvo zenu kwaye niqikelela ukuba
8 kuza kwenzeka kwintsomi.

9 *(You are meeting with your friends at school before school starts. They are playing and*
10 *pretending to be television actors. You ask if you may join them. You chat about your*
11 *favourite TV drama, The Next Step and describe who is playing which actor. You didn't*
12 *watch the previous day's episode. Your friends tell you what happened in the previous*
13 *day's episode. You share your opinions and predict what is going to happen next in the*
14 *story.)*

15 UAchuma: Molweni, tshomi! Nenzani na?

16 *(Hi girls! What are you doing?)*

17 UZama: Siyadlala uNext Step¹⁹! Ndidlala indima kaRiley. Ndenza iballet kwaye UAnikwa
18 udlala indima kaAmanda wenza iHip Hop.

19 *(We are playing The Next Step! I am playing the role of Riley. I am doing ballet and*
20 *Anikwa is playing the role of Amanda doing Hip Hop.)*

21 UAchuma: Hayi ke, kumnandi! Nam, ndifuna ukudlala nani. Ndicela ndidlale indima
22 kaMichelle okanye ekaEmily. Kwenzeka ntoni?

23 *(Well that looks nice! Can I play too? Please can I play Michelle or Emily's role? What's*
24 *happening?)*

¹⁹ Next Step is a popular television drama about a dance studio, and the characters (Riley, Amanda, Michelle, Emily, Hunter and West) are all experts in different dance disciplines.

25 UAnikwa: Ukhe wayibukela inkqubo yaphezolo yeNext Step?

26 *(Did you watch yesterday's episode?)*

27 UAchuma: Hayi, ngelishwa ndiphosiwe nguNext Step phezolo. Kwenzeke ntoni?

28 *(No, unfortunately I missed it. What happened?)*

29 UAnikwa: Yehaa! Akunokukholwa yinto eyenzeke kwinqubo yaphezolo, sisi! UEmily
30 wophuke umlenze!

31 *(Well, you won't believe what happened last night, girl! Emily broke her leg!)*

32 UAchuma: Hayi, suka! Nyhani?

33 *(No way! Really?)*

34 UAnikwa: Ngenene! Uyayazi ukuba iqela likaNext Step liza kungena kukhuphiswano
35 lokudanisa, yebo? Abazukukwazi ukungenela ukhuphiswano ngoba bashota ngomntu
36 omnye.

37 *(Really! You know that the Next Step team is entering a dance competition, right? Then
38 now they can't compete because they are short of a dancer.)*

39 UZama: Kodwa phambi koko uWest umxelele uEmily ukuba uyi"fire fairy" yeqela labo
40 kwaye ulelona lungu likaNext Step lithembekileyo.

41 *(But before that west told Emily that she is the fire fairy of the team and she's the most
42 reliable member of the Next Step.)*

43 UAchuma: Kowu! Yinyaniso; uNext Step akakwazi ukuthatha inxaxheba ngaphandle
44 kukaEmily. Bangenza ntoni?

45 *(Oh no! It's true: the Next Step cannot compete without Emily? What are they going to
46 do?)*

47 UAnikwa: Abakwazi ukungena kukhuphiswano belishumi elinanye, kuba kunyanzelekile
48 ukuba babe balishumi elinambini. Kuza kufuneka ukuba uAmanda abancede adanisele
49 uNext Step.

50 *(They cannot enter the competition with eleven dancers, because they have to be twelve.*
51 *Amanda will have to come and dance with them.)*

52 UZama: Andicingi! Yhu! UAmanda, yena ufuna ukubatshabalalisa abakaNext Step.

53 *(No way! Not Amanda! Amanda wants to destroy the Next Step.)*

54 UAnikwa: Enye nto emangalisayo yeyokuba uEmily noHunter baqale bathandane!

55 *(Another amazing thing is that Emily and Hunter are starting to like each other!)*

56 UAchuma: Yhuu! Nyhani? Benzeni?

57 *(Really? How do you know?)*

58 UAnikwa: Bebephuzana!

59 *(They were kissing!)*

60 UAchuma: Hayi bo!

61 *(No way!)*

62 UAnikwa: Ngenene! Bebephuzana phambi kwengozi yokuba uEmily ophuke umlenze.

63 *(Really! They were kissing before the accident when Emily broke her leg.)*

64 UZama: Kodwa andiqondi ukuba bafanelene. Mna, ndicinga ukuba uHunter ufanele
65 athandane noMichelle.

66 *(But I don't think that they suit each other. I think that Hunter and Michelle belong*
67 *together.)*

68 UAchuma: Ndivumelana nawe, sisi. UHunter noMichelle kwaye uEmily ufanele
69 athandane noWest.

70 *(I agree with you. Hunter and Michell and Emily and West.)*

71 UZama: Uchan' ucwethe, tshomi yam. Masibuyele emdlalweni wethu!

72 *(Now you're talking, my friend. Let's get back to our game!)*

APPENDIX 7

1 Incoko yabaninzi yesixhenxe:

2 Wena uyikapteni yeqela lebhola lesikolo sakho. Wena kunye nabanye abadlali bebhola
3 nisebaleni lesoka ukuze nidibane nomqeqeshi wenu. (a) Wakufika umqeqeshi weqela
4 lenu nibulisana, nincokole ngomdlalo wesoka wempelaveki egqithileyo. Umqeqeshi
5 uchaza indlela efanelekile yokuziphatha kwabadlali bebhola. (b) Umqeqeshi ubuza
6 umdlalo obeniwudlalile ngempelaveki egqithileyo kuwe. Kuchazwa ngoobani abakorayo,
7 ababedlala kakuhle nangeziphoso zabo. (c) Abadlali baxoxa ngemithetho yebhola
8 ekhathwayo kwaye bayacebisana eyona ndlela intle yokudlala. (d) Ekugqibeleni
9 umqeqeshi unikhuthazela umdlalo ozayo.

10 *You are the captain of your school's soccer²⁰ team. You and the other soccer players are*
11 *on the soccer field to meet with your coach. (a) When your team's coach arrives, you*
12 *greet and discuss the previous weekend's game. The coach describes the appropriate*
13 *behaviour that he expects from the soccer players. (b) The coach asks you about the*
14 *previous weekend's game. You talk about who scored, who played well and about the*
15 *mistakes they made. (c) You discuss the rules of football and advise each other about*
16 *the best way to play. (d) In the end the coach encourages the team for the upcoming*
17 *game.*

18 Umqeqeshi: Sondelani, badlali! Hlalani phantsi! Molweni, bantwana bam!

19 *(Come closer, players! Sit down! Afternoon, boys!)*

20 Abadlali: Molo, Coach!

21 *(Good afternoon, Coach!)*

22 Umqeqeshi: Mandiqalise ngokuthi nidlale kakhulu ngoMgqibelo.

23 *(I want to start by saying that you played very hard on Saturday.)*

24 UAvela: Yhu! Coach, sibethwe kakhulu!

²⁰ In South Africa football is called soccer.

25 *(No, Coach, we were beaten badly!)*

26 ULubabalo: Hayi, Avela, nokuba sibethiwe, sidlalile tu!

27 *(No, Avela, even though we were beaten, we played our best!)*

28 Umqeqeshi: Jongani apha, badlali, siza kubuyela kulo mcimbi; kodwa masiqale siya
29 ngezinto ezibalulekileyo. Ukudlalela iqela lesikolo lesoka kufuneka ingqeqesho. Ukufika
30 emva kwexesha ebaleni akuxoleleki! Iqela lenu lityhafiswa ngabadlali abangafiki
31 ngexesha. Okwesibini, kuyadlalwa kunxitywe izinxibo zomdlalo wesikolo sethu. Iikawusi
32 nooshoti, akufanelekanga nixibe imibala engafani nale yesikolo. Qinisekisini ukuba
33 ikhiti yakho yebhola iphelele, icocekile ngemini yomdlalo. Andizukuphinda ndithethe
34 ngale micimbi kwakhona. Xa nidlalela iqela lesikolo, nimela isikolo sethu. Nithobele le
35 mithetho yesikolo okanye nikhutshwe kwiqela lebhola. Siyavana, badlali?

36 *(Look here, boys, we'll get back to that, but first things first. You need discipline to play*
37 *for the school's soccer team. Arriving late for a game is inexcusable! You make your*
38 *whole team weak when you don't arrive on time. Secondly, you wear the school's sport*
39 *uniform when you play. Other coloured socks and shorts are not acceptable. Make sure*
40 *that your soccer kit is complete and clean on match days. I won't talk about these matters*
41 *again. When you play for the school team, you represent our school. Obey these school*
42 *rules or you'll be taken off the soccer team. Do we agree, players?)*

43 Abadlali: Ewe, kulungile, Coach!

44 *(Yes, Sir!)*

45 Umqeqeshi: Masiqhubeke. Ngelishwa sabethwa yiSterling ngoMgqibelo, kodwa
46 kwavezwa ubuchule bokudlala kweli qela lethu. Lubabalo, uyikaptani yeli qela. Uthini
47 na? Ngubani odlale kakuhle?

48 *(Let's continue then. Unfortunately we were beaten by sterling on Saturday, but there*
49 *was some good skills shown by this team. Lubabalo, you're the captain of this team.*
50 *What do you have to say? Who played well?)*

51 ULubabalo: Sonke singabadlali besidlala kakhulu, Coach, kodwa uSipho yena
52 usogqithile ekudlaleni! Bendivelana naye ebengenako ukukora, ngoba ebeshuta kaninzi

53 ngasemnatheni, ebenelishwa ibingangeni ibhola. Futhi, wahlaselwa kakhulu ngabadlali
54 baseSterling!

55 *(We all played well, Coach, but Sipho really played well. He was unlucky not to score,*
56 *because he had many shots at goal. He was also targeted by the Sterling players.)*

57 ULiyema: Yhu, uSipho, yena ebejikajika ibhola, man!

58 *(Man, Sipho, he knows how to maneuver the ball!)*

59 Umqeqeshi: Yinyaniso, Sipho, udlale kakhulu, kodwa ubuyibamba ibhola, ungayigqithisi.
60 Ngalaa maxesha ubutsala abadlali belinye iqela, ibinyanzelekile ukuba ibhola uyigqithisi
61 kwabanye abadlali beqela lakho, njengoKwezi okanye uLiyema. Ngoba
62 bebengenadifenda bona.

63 *(It's true, Sipho, you play well, but you hold onto the ball and don't pass it. At those times*
64 *when you were drawing all the players from the other team, you should have passed the*
65 *ball to your other team members, like Kwezi or Liyema, because they were open.)*

66 UKwezi: Ewe, nyani, Sipho! Udlalile, kodwa akupasanga tu. Mna bendikhona
67 ndikhululekile.

68 *(Yes, true, Sipho! You played well, but you never passed. I was there open all the time.)*

69 ULubabalo: Nekipha, Coach, uAvela, ebedlala kakhulu. Ubambe iibhola ezininzi!

70 *(And the goal keeper, Coach, Avela, he played hard. He caught so many balls!)*

71 Umqeqeshi: Avela, ubugcine ezaa pali kakuhle, kodwa nawe akukwazi ukudlala wedwa.

72 *(Avela, you protected the goal box well, but you can't play alone either.)*

73 UAvela: Unyanisile, Coach, bendishiywa ndedwa emva. Idefence yam yayinyuke
74 kakhulu ngoMgqibelo. Ebengekho omnye umntu onokunceda akhusele iipali zethu
75 ngaphandle kwam.

76 *(You're right, Coach, I was left alone at the back. My defense play too high up on*
77 *Saturday. There was no one left to help me protect the goal box.)*

78 UKhakaletu: Hayi, besisenzani na? Singalandelanga abachasi? Besingayifuni ibhola?
79 Tyhini, uyavuya!

80 *(And what were we supposed to do? Shouldn't we follow the opponents? Shouldn't we*
81 *get the ball? Hey, what do you know!)*

82 ULubabalo: Thoba, bhuti, nidlalile tu. Yiyo nje, kufuneka omnye ahlale noAvela emva
83 ancede.

84 *(Calm down, my friend, you played hard. The thing is just that it is necessary for someone*
85 *to remain back to help Avela.)*

86 UAvela: Xa istrayika yabo ibonakala ukuba iphezulu kakhulu, kufuneka nidlale i-offside
87 trap, difenda zam. Ngamanye amazwi, kufuneka ninyuke kunye ukuze ibe offside.

88 *(When you see the striker is playing too far up, then you must play the offside trap, my*
89 *defenders. In other words, you must come up to force the offside.)*

90 ULubabalo: Xa sikhusela ikona, kufuneka bonke abadlali babe phakathi kwebhokisi
91 yethu ngaphandle kwestrayika. Qinisekisini ukuba nibambe abadlali belinye iqela.

92 *(When we defend a corner, all the players must be inside the goal area except for the*
93 *striker. Make sure you mark the other team's players.)*

94 Umqeqeshi: Umdlalo weSterling sewugqithile. Ngoku siyaqhuba, sijonge ngaphambili
95 kumdlalo ozayo. Siza kudlala neGrens kwiveki ezayo.

96 *(The Sterling game is done and dusted. Now we go forward and we look ahead at the*
97 *next game. We play against Grens next week.²¹)*

98 Abadlali: Yhu! UGrens ziintshatsheli!

99 *(Oh no! Grens is the champs!)*

100 Umqeqeshi: Hayi, asinokoyiswa nguGrens. Masilungiselele lo mdlalo, sizinikele,
101 sizimisele!

²¹ Sterling and Grens are two big schools in East London, Eastern Cape, South Africa.

102 *(No, we are not afraid of Grens. Let's prepare for this game, we determine to give our*
103 *all!)*

APPENDIX 8

1 Incoko yabaninzi yesibhozo:

2 Wena nabanye abafundi abathathu nisebenzana ngokwamaqela nilungiselela ukudlala
3 idrama eyintsomi kwiklasi yenu. (a) Nixoxa ngokuba ngoobani na abafanele ukudlala
4 ngabaphi na abalinganiswa, nezinxibo zabo, nangeempahla ezinokuxhasa ukubaliswa
5 kwentsomi. (b) Nivumelana ukuba kunyanzelekile ukulungiselela nokuziqhelisa ukudlala
6 kule drama kwangexesha. Nixoxa ngamaxesha okuhlangana ukuze niziqhelisele
7 ukudlala le drama phambi kokuba niyenzele utitshala eyona iluviwo eklasini. (c)
8 Niyakhuthazana ukuba niphumelele kakuhle kulo msebenzi wesikolo.

9 *(You are working together in a group with three other learners preparing a play to perform*
10 *in the classroom. You discuss who ought to play which character, what they should wear,*
11 *and which props to use. You agree that it is necessary to prepare and practice before*
12 *the time. You discuss times to meet and practice before the assessment date. You*
13 *encourage each other to do well in this task.)*

14 USambesiwe: Ngubani oza kudlala endaweni yehagu?

15 *(Who will play the role of the pig?)*

16 USamkelo: Ndim! Ndifuna ukuyidlala!

17 *(Me! I want to play it!)*

18 UThabo: Ndiza kudlalainja.

19 *(I will play the dog.)*

20 USambesiwe: Hayi bo, Thabo! Inja ayithethi. Ngumlinganiswa omncinane
21 ongafanelanga wena. Ukuba uyinga, kuza kufuneka udlale nomnye umlinganiswa.

22 *(No way, Thabo! The dog doesn't speak. It is a small character, it's not fair. If you are*
23 *the dog, then you'll have to play another character as well.)*

24 UThabo: Ndingwenela ukudlalainja, ngoba andikuthandi ukuthetha phambi kwabantu.

25 *(I want to play the dog, because I don't like to speak in front of people.)*

26 USambesiwe: Lololwethu, ufuna ukudlala endaweni yantoni?

27 *(Lololwethu, which role do you want to play?)*

28 Lololwethu: Bendifuna nam ukudlalela endaweni yehagu.

29 *(I also wanted to play the role of the pig.)*

30 USambesiwe: Ihagu ithetha kakhulu. Maninzi amazwi oza kufuneka uwazile.

31 *(The pig speaks a lot. It's a lot of words you'll have to learn.)*

32 Lololwethu: Hayi yeka! Ndiza kudlala idonki.

33 *(No, then leave it! I'll play the donkey.)*

34 USambesiwe: Kulungile, uyimbongolo. Kushiyeke isele lodwa. Ndiza kudlala lona.

35 *(Alright you're the donkey. It is only the frog that's left. I'll play it.)*

36 USamkelo: Kukho nomnini-gadi. Ngubani oza kumdlala?

37 *(There's also the owner of the garden. Who will play him?)*

38 ULololwethu: NguThabo onomdlala. Akasathethi ngokwaneleyo. Makadlale umnini-
39 gadi!

40 *(Thabo can play him. He still doesn't say enough. Let him play the owner of the garden.)*

41 UThabo: Hayi, andikwazi ukudlala umnini-gadi nenja, kuba bangena kunye eqongeni.

42 *(No, I can't play the owner of the garden and the dog, because they're on stage at the*
43 *same time.)*

44 USambesiwe: Masiyeke, ukube siphikisana; ndiza kudlala isele nomnini-gadi.
45 Kunyanzelekile ukuba sidibane ukuprektisa. Singadibana ngexesha lebreiyiki yesibini.

46 *(Let's stop quarrelling; I'll play the frog and the owner of the garden. We have to meet to*
47 *practice. We can meet at second break.)*

48 ULololwethu: Uza kundilambisa, Sambesize. Ndiqhele ukutya ilantshi yam ngebreyiki.

49 Kutheni singaprektisi ngoku?

50 *(You're killing us, Sambesiwe. When are we supposed to eat our lunch? Why can't we*
51 *practice right now?)*

52 USambesiwe: Ngoba kufuneka siqale siwazi amazwi wethu.

53 *(Because we first have to learn our words.)*

54 USamkelo: Kodwa singazama, sizazi iindawo zethu nezenzo zethu.

55 *(But we can decide where to stand and try to work out our actions so long.)*

56 ULololwethu: Ewe, masiqale ngoku.

57 *(Yes, let's start now.)*

58 USambesiwe: Asikazigqibi iimpahla ezi ziza kunxitywa sithi emdlalweni.

59 *(We haven't decided on what to wear yet.)*

60 USamkelo: Sivumelekile ukunxiba iicostumes?

61 *(Are we allowed to wear costumes?)*

62 USambesiwe: Samkelo, ndicela uye kumem ucele imvume kuye yokunxibela umdlalo
63 wethu.

64 *(Samkelo, please go and ask mam if we are allowed to wear costumes for our play.)*

65 USamkelo: Kulungile.

66 *(Okay.)*

67 UThabo: Kaloku, ndiyinja, andinxibi nto. Ndiza kudlala ndinxibe nje iimpahla zesikolo.

68 *(But I'm a dog, I don't wear anything. I'll just wear my school uniform.)*

69 USamkelo: UMem uvumile ukuba siyinxibele intsomi.

70 *(Mam said we are allowed to dress up for the fable.)*

71 USambesiwe: Ndiza kuthwala umnqwazi womfama. Mhlawumbi sinako ukusebenzisa
72 nezinye iimpahla zokuxhasa ukudlala kwethu.

73 *(I'll wear a farmer's hat. Maybe we can use other props too.)*

74 ULololwethu: Njengantoni?

75 *(Like what?)*

76 USambesiwe: Njengethanga neharika.

77 *(Like a pumpkin and a rake.)*

78 USamkelo: Lihle, icebo lakho, Mbesi! Iza kufana negadi. Kuza 'ba 'mnandi!

79 Masiziqhelise ukudlala le ntsomi. Ndiqale, ndime ndawoni?

80 *(That's a good idea, Mbesi! It will look like a garden. It'll be nice. Let's start practicing to*
81 *do the story. I start; where must I stand?)*

82 USambesiwe: UHagwana uqala ahambe ezithethelela. Ewe, njalo, kodwa, hamba
83 umane usitya. Ngena, Mbongolo!

84 *(The little pig starts walking and talking by himself. Yes, like that, but walk and pretend*
85 *to be busy eating. Enter, Donkey!)*

86 USamkelo: Mhlawumbi, ndivakale nditswine njengehagu. Nawe, Lololwethu, khala
87 njengedonki!

88 *(Maybe I can squeal like a pig. You too, Lololwethu, cry like a donkey!)*

89 ULololwethu: Ikhala njani, idonki?

90 *(How does a donkey sound?)*

91 USamkelo: Ithi: "Hi-haa!"

92 *(It says: "Hee-haa!")*

93 ULololwethu: Uyavuya, Samkelo! Andivumi! Baza kundihleka!

94 *(You must be joking, Samkelo! I'm not doing that! They'll laugh at me!)*

95 USambesiwe: Hayi, Lolo, yidrama le. Kudlalwa njalo. Sidlala senzenje. Ngale ndlela
96 siza kubalisa intsomi.

97 *(No, Lolo, this is a drama. That's how you act. We pretend like that. That's how we tell*
98 *the story.)*

APPENDIX 9

1 *Incoko yabaninzi yethoba:*

2 Uyabhala umsebenzi wakho eklasini. Utitshala wakho uxelela abafundi ukuba kufuneka
3 aphume eklasini. Utitshala uniyalela ukuba niqhubeke nigqibezele umsebenzi wenu.
4 Umhlobo ukubuza umsebenzi wesifundo, uze umcacisele imiyalelo katitshala. Ucela
5 ukuba uziboleke iikhrayoni ezimbalwa zetshomi yakho. Umhlobo uvuma akuyinike,
6 kodwa ngamanye amaxesha wala ngelo thuba esayisebenzisa. Xa uyibuyisa kuye
7 ikrayoni yakhe, umhlobo wakho uchaza indawo yeeikhrayoni zakhe. Uthe akuphuma
8 utitshala eklasini, abafundi abambalwa bavele baphakama bahamba ezidesikeni.
9 Bayacaphukisana, bahluphana batsho bangxole. Utitshala ubuye wangena eklasini.
10 Abafundi becwaka bakubona utitshala edana kangaka. Emva koko utitshala ubuze kuwe
11 ukuba kwenzeke ntoni ngexesha ebengekho eklasini. Umcacisela yonke into
12 eyenzekileyo. Uxela ngoobani abaphikisana nezizathu zempikiswano. Utitshala uze
13 abohlwaya bonke abantwana. Wena ucebisa ukuba utitshala abohlwaya ngokobulungisa
14 kwaye uxhasa uluvo lwakho.

15 *(You are writing your assignment in class. Your teacher tells the students that he has to*
16 *leave the class. He instructs you to behave and to complete your assignment. Your*
17 *friend asks you about the class assignment and you explain the teacher's instructions to*
18 *her. You ask to use a couple of your friend's crayons. She agrees and gives you the*
19 *crayon, but sometimes refuses when she is still using it at that moment. When you return*
20 *the crayon, your friend tells you where to put her crayons. When the teacher leaves the*
21 *classroom, the students just get up and walk around the classroom without any reason.*
22 *They upset and annoy each with a great noise. The teacher enters the class again and*
23 *the learners keep quiet as they see the teacher's disappointment. Afterwards the teacher*
24 *asks you to explain what happened when he was gone. You explain to him what*
25 *happened in detail. You say who argued and the reasons for the argument. The teacher*
26 *then punishes the whole class. You advise the teacher on a fair punishment and support*
27 *your judgement.)*

28 Utitshala: Qhubekani, bafundi, nigqibezele lo msebenzi wenu. Ndiyaphuma
29 okwethutyana, ningadlali!

30 *(Continue, children, complete this exercise. I'll be out of the class for a moment, don't*
31 *play!)*

32 UZanele: Siyasanga, ndicela undiboleke iikhrayoni zakho ukuze ndikhalarishe lo mzobe
33 wam.

34 *(Siyasanga, please lend me your crayons so that I can colour in me drawing.)*

35 USiyasanga: Ndiyazoba ngazo. Ufuna liphi ibala lekhrayoni kuqala?

36 *(I am using it. Which colour do you want first?)*

37 UZanele: Ndicela ubhlowu okhanya kuqala.

38 *(Light blue first, please.)*

39 USiyasanga: Khawume, ndisakhalarisha ngayo.

40 *(Just a moment, I am still using it to colour in.)*

41 UZanele: Sikhalarishe iintolo zibe njani?

42 *(What colour do we use for the arrows?)*

43 USiyasanga: Sizikhalarishe zibe bomvu.

44 *(We should colour them red.)*

45 UZanele: Mandiqale ngeentolo ngoba usasebenzisa ubhlowu. Ndicela ikhrayoni yakho
46 ebomvu.

47 *(Let me then start with the arrows because you are still using the blue. Please let me use*
48 *your red crayon.)*

49 USiyasanga: Nantsi. Yiyo oyifunayo?

50 *(Here it is. Is this the one you want?)*

51 UZanele: Ayiyopinki leyo?

52 *(Isn't that pink?)*

53 USiyasanga: Hayi, le yikhrayoni yam ebomvu. Andinayo enye ibomvu.

- 54 *(No, this is my red crayon. I don't have another red.)*
- 55 UZanele: Utheni utitshala sinakho ukubhala iileyibhile ngeekhrayoni?
- 56 *(Did the teacher say that we may use colour for the labels?)*
- 57 USiyasanga: Hayi, uthe utitshala kufuneka sizibhale ngepensile qha!
- 58 *(No, he said that we must only use pencil for the labels!)*
- 59 UZanele: Ina, tshomi yam, enkosi ngeekhrayoni yakho. Undincedile.
- 60 *(Here my friend, thanks for your crayon. It was of great help.)*
- 61 USiyasanga: Kulungile, kodwa musa ukushiya iikhrayoni zam zithe saa edesikeni.
- 62 Zibuyise engxoweni yeepensile yam ukuze zingalahleki.
- 63 *(Alright, but don't leave my crayons lying around on the desk. Put them back in my pencil*
- 64 *case so that they don't get lost.)*
- 65 USiyasanga: Hayi bo, Alulutho! Yeyam laa raba!
- 66 *(No way, Alulutho! That's my eraser!)*
- 67 UALulutho: Ndiza kuphinda ndiyibuyise.
- 68 *(I'll give it back to you again.)*
- 69 USiyasanga: Khangе uyicele kum!
- 70 *(You never asked me!)*
- 71 UZanele: Ewe, bhuti, kufanele uqale ucele imvume kuSiyasanga!
- 72 *(Yes, Alulutho, you should ask first!)*
- 73 UALulutho: Ndiyeke, Zanele, ayinanto nakwenza nawe!
- 74 *(Stay out of it, Zanele, it's got nothing to do with you!)*
- 75 UPhelele: Hlalani phantsi, nibhale umsebenzi!
- 76 *(Sit down and do your work!)*

77 UZanele: Ndiza kumxelela utitshala yonke eyenzekileyo!

78 *(I am going to tell on!)*

79 UAlulutho: Thula ntombazana; ndiza kubetha!

80 *(Be quiet girl; I'll hit you!)*

81 UZanele: UAlulutho undibhethile!

82 *(Alulutho hit me!)*

83 UAlulutho: Uyaxoka, ntombazana!

84 *(You are lying!)*

85 UZanele: Yinyaniso le ndiyithethayo, undibethe ngempama emqolo! Andithi, Siyasanga?

86 Umbonile uAlulutho indlela andibethe ngayo?

87 *(I am not lying, you hit me on my back! Isn't it so, Siyasanga? Did you see how he hit*
88 *me?)*

89 UAlulutho: Uyaphosisa! Nceda! Nceda! UZanele ufuna ukundibetha ngerula yakhe!

90 *(You are lying! Help! Help! Zanele wants to hit me with her ruler!)*

91 UPhelele: Sukugeza, Alulutho, utitshala uza kohlwaya iklasi yonke xa ningxola kangaka.

92 *(Don't be silly, Alulutho, the teacher is going to punish the whole class if you make such*
93 *a noise.)*

94 UAlulutho: Nabo abaya bantwana bathetha, bengabhali umsebenzi wabo! Uyakhetha,
95 Phelele, kanti abanye bayangxola.

96 *(It's not just me. They are also talking and they're not working either! You are not being*
97 *fair, Phelele, in fact others are also noisy.)*

98 Utitshala: Yintoni ingxolo engaka? Hlalani phantsi nonke, nithule! Seniwugqibile
99 umsebenzi wenu okanye niwulibele umyalelo wam? Phelele, bekusenzeka ntoni ngoku
100 bendingekho eklasini?

101 *(What noise is this? Sit down and be quiet! Have you finished your work or have you*
102 *forgotten my instructions? Phelele, what happened when I was gone from the class?)*

103 USiyasanga: NguAlulutho lo, memu! Uyageza yena!

104 *(It's this Alulutho, mam! He was making trouble!)*

105 Utitshala: Thula, ntombi, ungathethi xa kungathethwa nawe! Ndibuze kuPhelele!

106 *(Be quiet, Siyasanga, you don't speak unless you are asked to! I asked Phelele what*
107 *happened!)*

108 UPhelele: Abasebenzanga kwaphela, titshala, emva kokuphuma kwakho eklasini.
109 Kwakhe kwakho impikiswano phakathi kukaSiyasanga noAlulutho malunga neraba.
110 UAlulutho, waqala wathatha iraba kaSiyasanga ngaphandle kwemvume. UZanele waza
111 wangenelela empikisweni yena. UZanele wasuka wakhala esithi wabethwa nguAlulutho.
112 Khange ndabona laa nto yenzekile, kodwa kwacacile ukuba wacaphukiswa yile nto
113 yokungenela kukaZanele uAlulutho.

114 *(They didn't work at all after you left the classroom, mam. There was a disagreement*
115 *between Siyasanga and Alulutho about a rubber. Alulutho first used Siyasanga's rubber*
116 *without his permission. Then Zanele became involved. Zanele cried and said that*
117 *Alulutho hit her. I didn't see it happen, but it was clear that Alulutho was annoyed by*
118 *Zanele's interference.)*

119 Utitshala: Zanele kutheni ulila?

120 *(Zanele, why are you crying?)*

121 UZanele: Ndisebuhlungu, titshala, ngoba uAlulutho undibhethe emqolo, titshala!

122 *(I am hurt, teacher, because Alulutho hit me on my back, teacher!)*

123 Utitshala: Alulutho, uyibhethela ntoni intombi?

124 *(Alulutho, what do you hit a girl for?)*

125 UAlutho: Andenzanga nto, titshala, kodwa le ntwana undiphoxile!

126 *(I didn't do anything, mam, but she insulted me!)*

127 Utitshala: Bafundi, nonke bekani intloko edesikeni, nithule! Cwaka tu! Ukuba nifuna
128 ukudlala ngexesha lokufunda, niya kusebenza ngexesha lebreiyiki.

129 *(Well students, everyone put your heads down on your desks and be quiet! I said be*
130 *quiet! If you want to play during lesson time, then you'll work during break time.)*

131 USiyasanga: Ayilunganga le nto, titshala, ngoba nguAlulutho oqale yonk' into! Thina
132 besiziphethe kakuhle. UAlulutho wasiphazamisa kwaye yena umele ukusixolisa. Usile
133 laa mntwana kwaye ufanelwe kukohlwaywa yedwa.

134 *(It's not fair, teacher, because it was Alulutho who started everything! The rest of us were*
135 *behaving. Alulutho distracted us and he should apologize to the class. He is naughty*
136 *and only he should be punished.)*

137 Utitshala: Xa unyanisile, Siyasanga, ukuba ubuziphatha kakuhle kwaye ububhala
138 ngexesha bendingekho, uze ukhawulez' ugqibe uphume ilantshi yakho.

139 *(If that's so, Siyasanga, and you were working while I weren't in the class, then you'll*
140 *quickly finish your work and go out for lunch.)*

141 UPhelele: Sendigqibile, titshala.

142 *(I have finished my work, teacher.)*

143 Utitshala: Wakugqiba umsebenzi ungaphumela ilantshi yakho ngexesha lekhefu. Qha!
144 Ngoku, ningabhali, nilale ezingalweni, nithule!

145 *(When you have finished your work then you may go out for break when the bell rings.*
146 *Now be quiet and lie on your arms, no one writes now!)*

APPENDIX 10

1 Incoko yabaninzi yeshumi:

2 (a) Utitshala wakho ubuza ukuba yintoni na ingqeqesho yasesikolweni. Wena nomnye
3 umfundi niphendula utitshala. Utitshala uthetha ngokubaluleka kokugcinwa
4 kwengqeqesho yaseklasini. (b) Uthi utitshala abafundi mabaxoxe ngokwamaqela
5 ngendlela yokuziphatha esikolweni, baze benze uludwe lwemithetho abacinga ukuba
6 mayithotyelwe eziklasini kwisikolo sabo. Wena ubuza umsebenzi kutitshala ukuze
7 uwuqinisekise. Utitshala aze achaze iimfanelo zabafundi abaseqeleni ngalinye. (c)
8 Abafundi basebenzana ngabathathu. Kumaqelana bayamamela ngelixa umfundi
9 ngamnye enika ezakhe izimvo necebo ukuze bakhethe eyona mithetho bavumelana
10 ngayo. Kwelinye iqela kufuneka ukuba kunyulwe umfundi wokuxela izimvo zalo kwiklasi.
11 Wena usebenzana nabanye abafundi ababini. Kuqala nigqibela imisebenzana
12 nemfanelo yelowo umfundi waseqeleni lenu. Nize nincokole ngemithetho yokuziphatha
13 ebalulekileyo kwaye nixhase izimvo zenu. (d) Wakubizwa ngutitshala uzixelela iklasi.
14 Elinye iqela alivumelani nezimvo zeqela lakho. Abafundi beli qela bacacisa izimvo zabo
15 besithi imithetho yesikolo ayifuneki. Wena uze uphendule elaa qela, nixoxe njalo.
16 Ekugqibeleni abafundi beklasi yakho bavotela iqela abavumelana nalo.

17 (a) *Your teacher asks the meaning of discipline at school. You and another student*
18 *answer him. He talks about the importance of discipline in the class. (b) The teacher*
19 *tells the students to discuss school rules for behaviour in their groups and then to make*
20 *a list of rules that they think should be obeyed in the classrooms. You ask the teacher*
21 *about the assignment to make sure of the instructions. (c) The teacher then describes*
22 *the different responsibilities of the group members. The learners work in groups of three*
23 *and listen to each member's ideas in order to select the rules that they agree on. In each*
24 *group one student is chosen to report back to the class. You and two other learners work*
25 *together. First you decide about the duties and responsibilities of each group member*
26 *and then you talk about important rules for behaviour at school. (d) When the teacher*
27 *calls you, you tell the class your group's rules and explain choices. Another group does*
28 *not agree with your group's views. The learners from that group explain their viewpoints*
29 *and explain that school rules are unnecessary. You then reply to that group and a debate*

30 *follows. In the end the learners in the class vote for the group which has best convinced*
31 *them of their views.*

32 Utitshala: Bafundi, niyayazi na ukuba yintoni ingqeqesho esikolweni?

33 *(Students, do you know what discipline at school is?)*

34 UMfundo: Yimithetho, Titshala, ...

35 *(It's rules, teacher, ...)*

36 UAndile: Ndim! Ndiyayazi, Titshala.

37 *(Me! I know, teacher.)*

38 Utitshala: Yima, Andile, sukukhwaza! Mamela kuqala ngoku uMfundo esathetha enika
39 impendulo yakhe. Qhubeka, Mfundo, yimithetho yantoni?

40 *(Wait, Andile, don't shout! First listen to Mfundo while his still speaking. Carry on,*
41 *Mfundo, which rules is it?)*

42 UMfundo: Yimithetho yasesikolweni, Titshala.

43 *(It's school rules, Teacher.)*

44 UAndile: Kukuthula eklasini, Titshala, nokunxiba iyunifomu eyasesikolweni.

45 *(It's being quiet in class, Teacher, and wearing the school's uniform.)*

46 Utitshala: Nichan' ucwethe nobabini, bafundi. Ingqeqesho yimithetho yokuziphatha
47 kakuhle esikolweni. Ingqeqesho ibalulekile ngoba iqinisekisa kubekho ucwangco
48 esikolweni, ukuze abafundi bonke bakwazi ukufumana imfundo. Eli, lilungelo lomntwana
49 ngamnye. Iklasi nesikolo sethu kunyanzelekile zibe nemithetho. Izimilo ezizizo
50 zibaluleke zifanele umntwana ohloniphayo. Sebenzani ngabathathu ukuze nenze uludwe
51 lwemithetho yokuziphatha esikolweni naseklasini yenu. Inkokeli yeqela ngalinye
52 mayinike ingxelo eklasini.

53 *(You are both correct. Discipline is the rules for good behaviour at school. Discipline is*
54 *important because it ensures that there is order at school, so that everyone can get an*
55 *education. This is a right of every child. Our classroom and school needs rules. A good*

56 *character is fitting for a respectful child. Work in 3's and make a list of rule for our school*
57 *and class. The group's leader must report back to the class.)*

58 USive: Titshala, kufuneka sibhale phantsi le mithetho ezincwadini zethu?

59 *(Teacher, must we write the rules in our books?)*

60 Utitshala: Umfundi ongeyiyo inkokheli kwiqela ngalinye makabe ngumbhali weqela,
61 makabhale phantsi izimvo zenu. Emva kokumamela amaqela onke sibhale phantsi olona
62 ludwe sivumelana ngalo ezincwadini.

63 *(For now let one who's not the leader be the scribe for each group, write down the group's*
64 *ideas. After we had listened to all the groups we will write down one list that we agree on*
65 *in our books.)*

66 UThando: Titshala, singabhala phantsi imithetho emingaphi?

67 *(Teacher, how many rules must we write down?)*

68 Utitshala: Kufuneka nibhale imithetho emininzi engaphezulu kwemithathu, ngoba elowo
69 umfundi uxela uluvo lwakhe. Omnye wabathathu ongeyonkokheli nongengombhali yena
70 uqinisekisa ukuba bonke abafundi baseqeleni banegalelo kwaye banethuba lokuvelisa
71 izimvo zabo. Lo uqinisekisa ukuba wonk' umntu uyathetha kwaye amalungu awangxoli.

72 *(You must write down more than at least three rules, because each student must say one*
73 *or more. One student who's not the leader or the scribe should make sure that everyone*
74 *has an opportunity to contribute. This one lets the group members talk and keep them*
75 *quiet.)*

76 UThando: Sibhale imithetho emithathu qha?

77 *(We only write down three rules?)*

78 Utitshala: Hayi, Thando. Imithetho mayibe mininzi, ingabi ngaphantsi kwemithathu.
79 Qalani ngoku bantwana, nixoxe, nimamelane, nibhale phantsi imithetho yokuziphatha
80 esikolweni naseklasini yenu.

81 *(No, Thando. There must be many rules, no less than three. Start now, children, discuss,*
82 *listen to each other and write down rules for good behaviour at school and in class.)*

83 UMfundo: Ndiyinkokheli yeqela lethu.

84 *(I'm the group leader.)*

85 UThando: Hayi'bo! Mfundo, usoloko unika ingxelo! Nam, ndifuna ithuba lokuba
86 yinkokheli.

87 *(No way! Mfundo, you are always doing the report! I also want to have chance to be the*
88 *leader.)*

89 USive: Ndiza kubhala.

90 *(I'll write.)*

91 UAndile: Titshala, andinalo iqela.

92 *(Teacher, I don't have a group.)*

93 UTitshala: Thando, makasebenze kunye nani eqeleni lenu uAndile.

94 *(Thando, let Andile work with your group.)*

95 UMfundo: Yhuu! Hayi'bo! Oko kunyanzelekile, titshala? Ndicela angasebenzi nathi,
96 ngoba loo mntwana uthetha kakhulu. Usoloko enenkathazo. Andimfuni, mna!

97 *(Yho! No way! Must he, teacher? Please don't let him work with us, because this child*
98 *talks too much! His annoying. I don't want him in our group!)*

99 UTitshala: Nceda, Mfundo, sebenzani nibe bane. Luxanduva lwakho ukuthethisa
100 nokuthulisa ilungu ngalinye kwiqela lakho.

101 *(Please, Mfundo, you are a group of four. It is your responsibility to say who can talk and*
102 *who must keep quiet.)*

103 UAndile: Abafundi bamele ukumamela utitshala eklasini kwaye bangalwi esikolweni.

104 *(The school kids ought to listen to the teacher and mustn't fight at school.)*

105 UThando: Kufanelekile ukuba kuphakanyiswe...

106 *(It is necessary to put up ...)*

107 USive: Yimani ndilindeneni ndisabhala inqaku likaAndile. Qhubekani.

108 *(Wait I'm still writing Andile's point. Carry on.)*

109 UThando: Nditsho, mabaphakamise isandla bacele invume yokuthetha eklasini.

110 *(I was saying, they must put their hand up and ask permission to talk in class.)*

111 UAndile: Hayi, loo nto iyandicaphukisa! Kuyabora ukuphakanyiswa kwesandla qho!

112 *(Oh no, that irritates me! It's so boring to always put up your hand!)*

113 UMfundo: Ngoba uthetha qho! Thula Andile, makathethe uSive naye.

114 *(Because you are always talking! Keep quiet Andile, let Sive have a turn.)*

115 USive: Mna, ndicinga ukuba kunyanzelekile ukuba bamamele xa utitshala okanye
116 umfundi ethetha.

117 *(I think that it is important to listen to the teacher or another student when they are talking.)*

118 UMfundo: Ndiyavumelana noSive kubalulekile ukuthethelela phantsi phakathi kwesikolo
119 nakwiklasi, ngoba asikwazi ukufunda xa kungxolwa kakhulu.

120 *(I agree with Sive and it is necessary to whisper inside the school building or in class,*
121 *because we can't learn when there's a lot of noise.)*

122 UTitshala: Seniza kugqiba? Gqibani ngoku. Ziinkokheli zamaqela, lungiselelani ukunika
123 iingxelo zamaqela enu.

124 *(Are you almost done? You must finish now. Group leaders, you can get ready to give*
125 *your groups' reports to the class.)*

126 UThando: Khawuleza undiphe iphepha, Sive!

127 *(Hurry! Give me the paper, Sive!)*

128 USive: Andikagqibi. Khawuphinde, Mfundo, ubusithini kanye ekugqibeleni?

129 *(I haven't finished. Please repeat Mfundo, what exactly did you say last?)*

130 UMfundo: Ndithe kuthulwe kwigumbi lokufundela okanye bathethelele phantsi,
131 bangangxoli esikolweni.

132 *(I said it must be quiet in class or they must whisper, they mustn't be noisy at school.)*

133 Utitshala: Thando, yiza ngaphambili eklasini, uze usixelele imithetho yeqela lakho.

134 *(Thando, come to the front and tell the class your group's rules.)*

135 UThando: Kwiqela lam, sithe kubalulekile ukuba abafundi bathule, bamamele utitshala
136 xa efundisa kwaye bamamele omnye umfundi othethayo, ngoba simele ukuba sihloniphe
137 utitshala nabanye abafundi. Singenzakalisani kwaye singalwi esikolweni, kuba yingozi.
138 Akungxolwa eklasini, kuba asikwazi ukufunda xa kungxolwayo. Kufuneka ukuba
139 kuthethelwe phantsi esikolweni.

140 *(In my group, we said that it is important for students to be quiet and listen to the teacher*
141 *when he teaches and to another student who is talking, because we ought to respect the*
142 *teacher and other students. We mustn't hurt each other or fight at school, because it is*
143 *dangerous. It must be quiet in class, because we cannot learn when there's a noise. It*
144 *is necessary to whisper in class.)*

145 ULethu: Titshala, iqela lam livumelana neqela likaThando okokuba singenzakalisani,
146 kodwa asivumelani nayo yonke imithetho yesikolo. Sicinga okokuba imithetho mayibe
147 luncedo kubantwana, ingabenzi amabanjwa!

148 *(Sir, my group agrees with Thando's group that children shouldn't hurt each other, but we*
149 *do not agree with all the unnecessary school rules. We think that rules must help children*
150 *and not imprison them!)*

151 ULololwethu: Ewe, titshala, uLethu uthetha ukuba imithetho yesikolo mayingabi
152 ngumqobo kwimfundo yethu. Siyoyika ukuthetha okanye sincekana kuba siyangxoliswa
153 kwaye siyohlwaywa. Simosha bani xa sithetha? Asivumelani nokuba kunxitywe
154 iyunifomu sihambe ngomgca ukuya kumagumbi okufundela. Asingomajoni;
155 singabafundi!

156 *(Yes, Sir. What Lethu means is that the school rules impede our learning. We are afraid*
157 *to speak up or help each other, because we get shouted at and punished. Who are we*
158 *hurting when we talk to each other? We do not agree that it is necessary to wear school*
159 *uniform and walk in lines to our classes. We are not soldiers; we are children!)*

160 USiyolise: Titshala, iqela lam lithi imithetho yesikolo emininzi ayibalulekanga isenza
161 sizive ngathi sisejele. Sikholelwa ukuba abantwana bayakwazi ukuzicingela
162 nokuziphatha. Asifuni monitha yeklasi natitshala abazenza amapolisa ngalo lonk' ixesha.
163 Sonke sizokufunda, kanti imithetho emininzi ayinanto yakwenza nemfundo.

164 *(Sir, what my group is saying is that many of the school rules are unnecessary and only*
165 *make us feel like we are in prison or something. We believe that children can think for*
166 *themselves and know how to behave. We do not need class monitors and teachers to*
167 *police us all the time. We are all here to learn and many of the school rules have nothing*
168 *to do with learning.)*

169 Utitshala: Mfundo, iqela lakho licinga ntoni ngokuthethwa liqela likaLethu?

170 *(Mfundo, what does your group think of what Lethu's group is saying?)*

171 UMfundo: Hayi, titshala, asivumelani nabo. Ewe, imithetho yesikolo mayisincede kwaye
172 iyasanceda! Xa wonk' umntu enokwenza nantoni athethe nanini na efuna loo nto,
173 ingabangela isiphithiphithi. Kufuneka siziphathe ngendlela efanelekileyo ukuze wonk'
174 umntu afunde abenekamva eliqaqambileyo. Ndifuna ukuba uLololwethu wazi ukuba
175 siyayithanda iyunifomu yethu yesikolo kwaye siyazidla ngayo. Yinto yokuba senza sizive
176 singabantwana besikolo. Nako endifuna ukukuthetha, titshala.

177 *(No, Sir, we do not agree with them. Yes, the school rules must help us and they do! If*
178 *everyone does whatever they want to and talk whenever they want to then there will be*
179 *chaos. We need to behave orderly so that everyone can learn and have the best*
180 *opportunity to learn. And I would like to tell Lololwethu that many of us like our school*
181 *uniform and are proud to wear it. The thing is it makes us feel part of the school. That's*
182 *all I have to say, Sir.)*

183 Utitshala: Lethu, ingaba ikhona enye into ofuna ukuyongeza?

184 *(Lethu, is there something else you would like to add?)*

185 ULethu: Hayi, titshala, sicinga ukuba imithetho yeyabantwana ngokoke asiyifuni.

186 *(No, Sir, just that we think that rules are for babies and that we do not need it.)*

187 Utitshala: Ndiyabulela kuwo omabini amaqela ngokwabelana ngezimvo. Ngoku, ndicela
188 iklasi ivotele iqela libe linye. Ndicela uphakamise isandla ukuba uvumelana neqela
189 likaMfundo uyahambisana nemithetho yesikolo. Kwakhona, ndicela baphakamise
190 isandla abavumelana neqela likaLelethu elithi imithetho yesikolo ayibalulekanga.

191 *(Thank you to both groups for sharing your views. Now, I would like the class to vote for*
192 *one of these groups. Please put up your hand if you agree with Mfundo's group and you*
193 *are for school rules. Now, put up your hand if you agree with Lethu's group and you think*
194 *that most school rules are unnecessary.)*

APPENDIX 11

1 **Incoko yabaninzi yeshumi elinanye:**

2 (a) Utitshalakazi wakho unifundisa ngokutya okunempilo. Uchaza iindidi zokutya,
3 amaqela okutya, neezakha-mzimba. Utitshala ubuza kubafundi ukuba babize iindidi
4 ezahlukene zokutya. Wena nomnye umfundi niphendula utitshala. (b) Nivula iincwadi
5 esifundisweni, nize nifune imizekelo yeendidi ezihlukene zokutya emifanekisweni
6 yasencwadini. (c) Kufuneka abafundi basebenzane ngokwamaqela. Nohlulelane
7 ngemisetyenzana: omnye ungumbhali, omnye uyinkokheli, omnye ungumgcini-xesha,
8 nomnye uyathethisa abafundi eqinisekisa ukuba bonke bathathe inxaxheba. (d) Wena
9 nabanye abafundi abathathu nixoxa ngokutya okunempilo nizobe imenyu yeveki ezayo.

10 (a) *Your teacher teaches you about healthy food. She describes the different types of*
11 *food, food groups and nutrients. The teacher asks the children to give her examples of*
12 *different types of food and you and another learner answer her. (b) You open your books*
13 *at the lesson and then look for examples of different types of food in pictures in the text*
14 *book. (c) It is necessary for the students to work in groups. You have to divide the duties:*
15 *one is the writer, the other the leader, the other the time keeper and another is the gate*
16 *keeper who makes sure everyone takes part. (d) You and three other learners discuss*
17 *healthy food and you draw up a menu for the next week's meals.*

18 Utitshala: Molweni bafundi!

19 *(Morning, students!)*

20 Abafundi: Molo, titshalakazi Taleni.

21 *(Good morning, Mrs. Taleni!)*

22 Utitshala: Khuphani iincwadi zenu, nizivule kwiphepha le-25. Isifundo sanamhlanje
23 sesokutya. Khawulezani nithule, bafundi!

24 *(Take out your books and open on page 25. Today's lesson is about food. Hurry up and*
25 *be quiet, children!)*

26 UZama: Ndixolele, titshalakazi, ngoba ndishiye incwadi yam ekhaya.

27 *(Excuse me, mam, but I left my book at home.)*

28 Utitshala: Funda kunye noLizukise. Lizukise, ndicela ukuba uZama afunde nawe
29 encwadini yakho.

30 *(Read with Lizukise. Lizukise, please let Zama read with you in your book today.)*

31 ULizukise: Kulungile, titshalakazi.

32 *(It's fine, mam.)*

33 Utitshala: Senivulile kwisifundo sanamhlanje?

34 *(Has everyone opened at today's lesson?)*

35 Abafundi: Ewe, titshalakazi Taleni.

36 *(Yes, teacher.)*

37 Utitshala: Bafundi, niyayazi ukuba zikhona iindidi ngeendidi zokutya? Ndibizele
38 imizekelo yokutya.

39 *(Boys and girls, you know that we get different kinds of food? Give me some examples.)*

40 UQiqa: Kukho iziqhamo nemifuno, titshalakazi.

41 *(There are fruit and vegetables, mam.)*

42 Utitshala: Unyanisile, Qiqa. Zuko, ndixelele okunye.

43 *(Correct, Qiqa. Zuko, tell me another one.)*

44 UZuko: Kukho nenyama, titshalakazi, nepapa.

45 *(There's also meat, mam, and porridge.)*

46 Utitshala: Yinyaniso, Zuko. Ukutya kunezakha-mzimba njengeeprotheni,
47 iikhabhohadrethi, amafutha, iivithamini kunye neeminerali. Singakohlula ukutya
48 ngokwamaqela okutya okunezakha-mzimba ezifanayo. Iziqhamo nemifuno zinevithamini
49 neeminerali kwaye ziyayikhusela imizimba yethu kwizifo. Isonka, irayisi neepapa
50 zakusasa zineekhabhohadrethi kwaye zona zinika amandla. Inyama neentlanzi
51 zineeprotheni ezikhulisa imizimba yethu. Kukho nezidlo zobisi nezidlo zamaafutha.

52 Jongani imifanekiso ekhoyo kwiphepha le-25, niqikelele ukuba inokuba zeziphi iindidi
53 zokutya. Ningababini xoxani ngale mifanekiso isencwadini yenu.

54 *(That's right, Zuko. Food contains nutrients like proteins, carbohydrates, fats, vitamins*
55 *and minerals. We can divide food into different groups according to the main nutrients*
56 *which they have. Fruit and vegetables have vitamins and minerals which protects us*
57 *against disease. Bread, rice and porridge have carbohydrates that give us energy. Meat*
58 *and fish have proteins that help us to grow. There are also dairy products and fats. Look*
59 *at the pictures on page 25 and decide what kind of foods these are. Discuss the pictures*
60 *with the person next to you.)*

61 UQiqqa: Lo owokuqala zizidlo eziluhlaza.

62 *(This first one is all types of greens.)*

63 UZuko: Ndiyavumelana nawe, bhuti. Masithi yimifuno. Umfanekiso wesibini yitshizi
64 nekrimi namasi. Zezobisi ezi.

65 *(I agree with you, Qiqqa. Let's say it's vegetables. The second picture is cheese, cream*
66 *and sour milk. These are dairy products.)*

67 Utitshala: Senigqibile? Masiqhubeke.

68 *(Are you finished? Let's continue.)*

69 UQiqqa: Xolo, mam, asikagqibi.

70 *(Sorry, mam, we are not finished yet.)*

71 Utitshala: Kunyanzelekile ukuba siqhubele phambili, bafundi, ngoba lisondele ixesha
72 lebreiyiki kaloku. Ngemini nganye kufuneka umzimba usifumane isidlo ngasinye esinazo
73 iimfuno zesidlo. Oku kuthetha ngesidlo esinezakha-mzimba kwiindidi ngeendidi zokutya.
74 Kufuneka sisoloko sisitya ukutya okutsha, hayi okudala; nokusela amanzi
75 kangangeeglas ezi sixhenxe ngemini. Ukutya yimpilo. Okubalulekileyo kukuba sifumane
76 izakha-mzimba kwiindidi ngeendidi zokutya ezikwisidlo ngasinye. Ngokwamaqela xoxani
77 ngokutya okunika impilo, nize nizobe imenyu yosuku olunezidlo ezintathu.

78 *(It is necessary that we carry on now, children, because we are running out of time. It will*
79 *be break time soon. Every day your body needs every kind of nutrition. This means that*
80 *our meals must contain the different food groups and nutrients. We have to eat fresh*
81 *food, not old expired food, and drink about seven glasses of water a day. Food is the key*
82 *to good health. The important thing is that we get nutrients from different kind of food in*
83 *every meal. I want you to discuss healthy food in your groups and draw up a menu for*
84 *the three meals of the day.)*

85 UZama: Titshalakazi, ndicela imvume yokuya kuhlala kuNtombi?)

86 *(Teacher, may I sit with Ntombi?)*

87 Utitshala: Hayi, bafundi, andinivumeli niphakame niyokuhlala kwezinye iidesika.
88 Sebenzani ngabane kulaa ndawo nihlala kuyo. Kufuneka nohlulane imisetyenzana:
89 omnye ungumbhali, omnye uyinkokheli, omnye ungumgcini-xesha, nomnye uyathethisa
90 abafundi eqinisekisa ukuba bonke bathathe inxaxheba.

91 *(No, children, you do not get up and sit with your friends. Work in groups of four there*
92 *where you are sitting. It is necessary that you divide the duties: one of you is the scribe,*
93 *another the group leader, another the time keeper, and another the gate keeper.)*

94 ULizukise: Niks! Andingombhali. Ndiza kuba ngumgcini-xesha. Titshalakazi, sinalo
95 ixesha elingakanani?

96 *(Chips! I am not the scribe. I'll be the time keeper. Teacher, how much time do we*
97 *have?)*

98 Utitshalakazi: Kushiyeke imizuzu elishumi phambi kokuphumela ibreyiki; kodwa emva
99 kokubuye nifumane enye ihafu yeyure.

100 *(There is only ten minutes left before break time, but when you come back you'll have*
101 *another half an hour.)*

102 UZama: Ndiyigeyithi-kipa.

103 *(I am the gate keeper.)*

104 UQiqqa: Ndiza kubhala.

105 *(I'll write.)*

106 UZuko: Hayi bo, andifuni kukhokela ndize ndifundele iklassi eyethu imenyu! Nceda, Qiqa,
107 ube yinkokheli.

108 *(No way, I am not the group leader. I do not want to report back to the class! Please,*
109 *Qiqa, you be the group leader.)*

110 UQiqa: Ndiza kuvuma xa ubhala ngenyameko uqinisekise ukuba ucwangcise zonke
111 izimvo ngokucacekileyo.

112 *(I'll agree, but only if you write neatly and clearly.)*

113 UZuko: Ndiza kubhala kakuhle zonke, Qiqa.

114 *(I promise I'll write everything nicely, Qiqa.)*

115 UQiqa: Zuko, qala wolahlule iphepha kathathu. Bhala isidlo sakusasa, ilantshi nedinara.
116 Masincokole ngenyama kuqala, sixele udidi lweprotheni kwisidlo ngasinye.

117 *(Zuko, start by dividing the paper into three. Write breakfast, lunch and dinner. Let's*
118 *decide on a meat first. Let's choose a protein for every meal.)*

119 UZama: Kusasa sitya amaqanda.

120 *(In the morning we have eggs.)*

121 ULizukise: Ewe, nesipeki.

122 *(Yes, with bacon.)*

123 UZuko: Andiyityi inyama yehagu, mna; andisithandi isipeki.

124 *(I don't eat pork and I don't like bacon.)*

125 ULisukise: Sinencasa isipeki, ngakumbi esojiweyo esihambana namaqanda.

126 *(Bacon tastes nice especially fried with eggs.)*

127 UQiqa: Kodwa amafutha sisityo esiyingozi xa uthe wasitya rhoqo.

128 *(But fatty foods are dangerous when you have too much of it.)*

129 UZuko: Ndithanda isonka namasi.

130 *(I like bread and sour milk²².)*

131 ULizukise: Oko asiyoprotheni.

132 *(That's not a protein.)*

133 UZama: Intsimbi seyiza kukhala. Kufuneka ukhawuleze ubhale isidlo sakusasa, Zuko.

134 Siya kubuyela kulo mcimbi emva kwebreyiki.

135 *(The bell is about to ring. You have to hurry and write down the breakfast, Zuko. We can*
136 *get back to this after break.)*

137 UZuko: Ndibhale ntoni?

138 *(What must I write now?)*

139 UQiqqa: Isidlo sakusasa liqanda nesonka namasi. Siyavana na?

140 *(Breakfast is an egg, bread and sour milk. Do we agree?)*

141 ULizukise: Kulungile.

142 *(Fine.)*

²² Amasi (sour milk) is thick milk and very popular in South Africa.

APPENDIX 12

1 Incoko yabaninzi yeshumi elinesibini:

2 Utitshala wakho ubulisa abafundi, aze abahlalise acele bakhuphe iipensile zabo nokuvula
3 iincwadi zesifundo. Wena uboleka ipensile kutitshala, ngoba eyakho ilahlekile. Oku
4 akakuthandi utitshala, nangona esaboleka ipensile, kwaye wena uvumele ukungxolisa
5 kwakhe. Utitshala ufundisa abafundi ngongcoliseko neendidi zongcoliseko ezikhoyo.
6 Utitshala ubuza imizekelo yongcoliseko yasedolophini yabo kubafundi. Baze baxebele
7 iindawo ezimdaka abazaziyo. Wena nomnye umfundi ohlala kunye nawe edesikeni,
8 nincokola ngemifanekiso yasencwadini yesifundo. Nichonga imifanekiso nize nichaze
9 iindidi zongcoliseko. Utitshala ubuza unobangela neziphumo zongcoliseko ezinengozi.
10 Abafundi abambalwa bayamphendula. Wena nomhlobo wakho nithetha ngeendlela
11 zokuqoqosha inkunkuma. Uchazela umhlobo wakho indlela enobuchule yokuphinda
12 usebenzise inkukuma ukuze wakhe into entle.

13 *Your teacher greets the learners and asks them to sit down and to take out their books*
14 *and pencils. You ask to borrow a pencil from the teacher, because you've lost your pencil.*
15 *Although she lends you a pencil, she tells you to bring your own pencil to school and you*
16 *consent to her reproof. The teacher teaches the children about pollution and the different*
17 *types of pollution. The teacher asks the learners for examples of pollution in their town*
18 *and they tell her about dirty places that they've seen. You and the student who shares a*
19 *desk with you, discuss the pictures in your textbook. Referring to specific pictures, you*
20 *identify the types of pollution. Your teacher asks you what causes pollution and what*
21 *some of the dangerous consequences are. A few learners answers him. You and your*
22 *friend talk about ways to reduce litter. You describe to your partner some crafty ways to*
23 *recycle rubbish.*

24 Utitshala: Molweni bafundi!

25 (Good morning, class!)

26 Abafundi: Molo titshala Litye!

27 (Morning, Sir!)

28 Utitshala: Hlalani phantsi, nikhuphe iincwadi neepensile zenu. Vulani iincwadi zenu
29 kwiphepha le-17 kwisifundo songcoliseko.

30 *(Sit down and take out your books and pencils. Open your books on page 17 at the*
31 *lesson on pollution.)*

32 UZukiso: Ndicela undiboleke ipensile, titshala, ngoba eyam ilahlekile.

33 *(Sir, may I please borrow a pencil; my pencil is lost.)*

34 Utitshala: Nantsi, Zukiso.

35 *(Here, Zukiso.)*

36 UZukiso: Enkosi kakhulu, titshala.

37 *(Thank you, sir.)*

38 Utitshala: Ngomso kufuneka uziphathele eyakho.

39 *(You must bring your own pencil to class tomorrow.)*

40 UZukiso: Ewe, titshala Litye, andinakuphinda ndiyilibale, iliso liphandlwa kube kanye.

41 *(Definitely, sir, I won't forget again.)*

42 Utitshala: Bafundi, ungcoliseko lubhekiselele kubumdaka nenkunkuma kwiindawo
43 neengingqi esihlala kuzo kwaye buyingozi kwimpilo yabantu. Nikhe nalubona
44 ungcoliseko kwidolophu yenu? Nibone ntoni? Mfundo?

45 *(Class, pollution refers to the rubbish and dirt we see around us that holds a threat for*
46 *people's health. Have you seen pollution in our town? What did you see? Mfundo?)*

47 UMfundo: Ewe, titshala, ndibone izinto ezimdaka ezifana neeplastiki, iibhotile
48 neenkonkxa emlanjeni nasedameni lasedolophini emva koMacDonalds.

49 *(Yes, sir, I've seen rubbish like plastics, bottles and tins in the river and dam behind*
50 *MacDonalds in town.)*

51 Utitshala: Mgqibelo?

52 *(And you, Mgqibelo?)*

53 UMGqibelo: Nam, titshala, ndakhe ndalubona kwizitalato zasedolophini, ingakumbi
54 ekuseni ngeCawa.

55 *(Me too, teacher, I have seen rubbish in the streets, especially on Sunday mornings.)*

56 Utitshala: Zandile, uthini wena?

57 *(Zandile, what do you say?)*

58 UZandile: Ngamanye amaxesha, abantu batshisa amatayara elokishini, awungcolise
59 umoya, titshala, ube umnyama.

60 *(The people sometimes burn tyres in the location²³ and it makes the air black.)*

61 Utitshala: Nonke ninyanisile kwaye ezi zinto nizibizileyo yimizekelo yongcoliseko
62 lwamanzi, olomhlaba nolomoya. Nicinga ukuba yintoni ingozi yokuba zimdaka ezi ndawo
63 sihlala kuzo? Zandile?

64 *(You are all right, children. These are all examples of water, soil and air pollution. Why
65 do you think pollution is dangerous for us? Zandile?)*

66 UZandile: Ndicinga ukuba yingozi, ngoba abantu banokugula xa bephefumla umoya
67 omdaka.

68 *(I think that it is dangerous, because people can get sick when they inhale that dirty air.)*

69 Utitshala: Unyanisile, Zandile. Ungcoliseko lugulisa abantu kwaye lunokuthi lonakalisa
70 indalo iphela. Xa nijonge imifanekiso esezincwadini zenu, khethani imizekelo
71 yongcoliseko. Xoxani nomhlobo wakho iindidi ngeendidi zongcoliseko ezikule
72 mifanekiso.

73 *(That's true, Zandile. Pollution make people sick and it can also damage all of nature.
74 When you look at the pictures in your books, identify the examples of pollution. Discuss
75 with your friend the different types of pollutions in these pictures.)*

76 UZukiso: Iphe imifanekiso yongcoliseko, titshala?

²³ The location is an informal residential settlement.

77 *(Where are the pollution pictures, teacher?)*

78 Utitshala: Ikwiphepha-17 lasencwadini yakho, Zukiso. Uyifumene?

79 *(On page 17 in your book, Zukiso. Have you found it?)*

80 UZukiso: Uxolo, titshala, ndiyayibona ngoku.

81 *(Sorry, teacher, I see them now.)*

82 UMfundo: Umzi-mveliso ungcolisa umlambo. Lungcoliseko lwamanzi olu olomfanekiso
83 lokuqala.

84 *(The factory is polluting the river. It is water pollution this, in the first picture.)*

85 UZukiso: Jonga apha! Umqhubi wale moto ulahla iphepha esitalatweni! Ngumzekelo
86 wongcoliseko. Andithi?

87 *(Look here! The driver of this car throws a paper in the street! It is an example of pollution.*
88 *Isn't it?)*

89 UMfundo: Ewe, lolomhlaba. Nomqhumokazi weemoto ezingcolelwe ziinjini
90 ziyawungcolisa umoya.

91 *(Yes, it is soil pollution. Also the cars' exhaust fume pollutes the air.)*

92 UZukiso: Phi?

93 *(Where?)*

94 UMfundo: Alubonakali, kodwa kukho iimoto emfanekisweni.

95 *(You can't see it, but there are cars in the picture.)*

96 Utitshala: Bafundi, ndicela nikrwaqule umfanekiso wokugqibela. Ezantsi kwiphepha le-
97 17. Ningathini yintoni ebangele idolophu ibe mdaka kangaka?

98 *(Students, please look at the last picture at the bottom of page 17. What do you think is*
99 *the reason for this town to be so dirty?)*

100 UZukiso: Abantu balahla izinto ezimdaka esitalatweni.

101 *(The people are throwing litter in the street.)*

102 Utitshala: Ngoba?

103 *(Why?)*

104 UZukiso: Yinto yokuba ayikho imigqomo yeenkunkuma.

105 *(There are no rubbish bins.)*

106 Utitshala: Mfundo?

107 *(Mfundo?)*

108 UMfundo: Mna, ndicinga ukuba kungenxa yokungakhathali nje, titshala.

109 *(Sir, I think that it is simply because of not caring.)*

110 Utitshala: Kutheni kungalunganga ukulahla izinto ezimdaka esitalatweni?

111 *(Why is it wrong to litter?)*

112 UMgqibelo: Yingozi, titshala, ngoba umntwana angasikwa yiglas elunyaweni kwaye
113 ikhangeleka imbi idolophu yethu.

114 *(It is dangerous, sir, because a child can cut himself when he steps on a piece of glass*
115 *and it makes the town look ugly.)*

116 Utitshala: Unyanisile xa usithi yingozi, Mgqibelo. Izinto ezimdaka zinokutsala iimpukane
117 kwaye iimpukane zithwala iintsholongwane ezibangela izifo. Ngababini, xoxani iindlela
118 enizaziyo zokuqoqosha inkunkuma emakhaya.

119 *(You are correct when you say litter is dangerous, Mgqibelo. Litter attracts flies and flies*
120 *carry disease. In pairs, discuss ways of reducing the litter at our homes.)*

121 UZukiso: Kufuneka sisebenzise umgqomo weenkunkuma, singalahli phantsi amaphepha
122 ethu.

123 *(We must use rubbish bins and not litter.)*

124 UMfundo: libhotile zeglas ziyabuyiselwa ezivenkileni. Futhi kukho iindlela ezininzi
125 ezinobuchule zinokuphinda zisetyenziswe iibhotile zeplastiki. Ekhaya siyazihlamba

126 siphinde sigcine amanzi nezinye izinto kuzo. I-2 litha yeplastiki ndiyisika ibe yihalfu, ndize
127 ndigcine iipensile nezinye izinto zam zokudlala phakathi ebhotileni ehalfu phezu
128 kwedesika yasekamereni yam.

129 *(The glass bottles can be returned to the shops. There are also lots of ways to recycle*
130 *plastic bottles. At home we wash them and keep water and other things in them. I cut a*
131 *two litre plastic bottle in half and keep my pencils and other toys in it on top of my desk in*
132 *my room.)*

133 UZukiso: Nyani? Hayi, lihle elo cebo lakho, Mfundo. Mxelele utitshala Litye icebo lakho;
134 angalithanda.

135 *(Really? Now that's a good idea, Mfundo. Tell Mr Litye your plan, he'll like it.)*

APPENDIX 13

1 **Incoko yabaninzi yeshumi elinesithathu:**

2 Uza kubhala uvavanyo lweJografi ngamaphondo aseMzantsi Afrika, kodwa uyoyika
3 ukuba uza kutshona olu vavanyo. Ubaxelela ngeenkathazo zakho abahlobo bakho
4 ababini. Nincokola ngamaphondo eniwaziyo. Nincokolo ngezizalwana zenu ezihlala
5 kwamanye amaphondo akweli lizwe. Nincokola nangeeholide zenu. Wena, khange
6 wahamba amanye amaphondo, kodwa abahlobo bakho bakuxelela ngeeholide
7 ebebetyelela kwamanye amaphondo aseMzantsi Afrika: amagama eedolophu, iindawo
8 bahlala kuzo nezinto ebazenzileyo. Zininzi izinto ezinomdla ebazibonileyo.
9 Yakukhaliswa intsimbi yokuqala kwesikolo, ninduluka niye emigceni. Ubona ijezi yesikolo
10 yomhlobo wakho eshiyekayo, uze umxelele ngayo. Yena uyabulela.

11 *(You are writing a Geography test about the South African provinces, but you are worried*
12 *that you will fail the test. You tell your two friends about your fears. You and your friends*
13 *discuss the provinces in South Africa that you know. You talk about your relatives who*
14 *stay in other provinces. You chat about your holidays. You have never travelled to other*
15 *provinces, but your friends tell you about their travels to some of the provinces: it is the*
16 *names of the towns, where they stayed and what they did. They saw lots of interesting*
17 *things. When the bell rings for the school to start, you leave and go to the lines. You see*
18 *your friend's school jersey left behind and tell him. She thanks you.)*

19 UKhanyisile: Matshe! Yhu, ndiza kufeyila!

20 *(Oh no! I am going to fail!)*

21 UNtando: Yintoni ngoku?

22 *(What's it now?)*

23 UKhanyisile: YiJografi. Ndiyaxhalabile ngoba ndiyokubhala uvavanyo namhlanje, kodwa
24 ndiza kutshona, nyani!

25 *(It's Geography. I am worried because we are writing a test today, but I am definitely*
26 *failing.)*

27 UNtando: Niza kubhala ngantoni?

28 *(What are you writing on?)*

29 UKhanyisile: Andiqinisekanga. Andiyazi yonke, kodwa sifunde ngoMzantsi namaphondo
30 akweli. Hayi bethu, la maphondo maninzi kakhulu!

31 *(I am not sure. I don't know everything, but we learnt about South Africa and the*
32 *provinces. And there are so many provinces!)*

33 UThina: Hayi, incinci laa nto. Sasisesiwafundile kunyaka ophelileyo kwigreyidi yesine.

34 *(No, it's not that bad. We already learnt about the provinces last year in grade 4.)*

35 UKhanyisile: Hayi suka, Thina, ukleva wena. Ndazi iphondo leMpuma-Koloni qha!

36 *(Oh shut up, Thina, you are just too clever! I only know the Eastern Cape, that's it!)*

37 UNtando: NeRhawutini? NgoDisemba ogqithileyo ndahamba ndaya kuchitha iholide
38 kumkhuluwa wam kwaFourways. Kowu! Inkulu laa dolophu kwaye zininzi iivenkile
39 ezikhoyo phaya.

40 *(And Gauteng? Last December we spent the holidays at my older brother's in*
41 *Fourways²⁴. Man, that town is big and has so many shops!)*

42 UThina: Ngo-2013, ngeKrimesi, ndahamba kunye nomama saya eThekwini. UMalume
43 wam uhlala pha' kwaMashu. Kwakumnandi kakhulu eThekwini, ngakumbi ngaselwandle.
44 Saqubha, sangqengqa elwandle.

45 *(In 2013, at Christmas, I traveled with my mother to Durban. My uncle stays in*
46 *Kwamashu. It was so nice in Durban especially by the sea. We swam and laze about on*
47 *the beach.²⁵)*

48 UKhanyisile: Hayi, mna andizange ndityelele nakwelinye ilizwe. Ndidla ngokuchitha
49 zonke iiholide zam zesikolo elalini yaseGqogqodala kwamakhulu. Udadewam yena
50 ufunda eyunivesithi yaseKapa. Nam ndinomnqweno wokuya eKapa emva
51 kokuphumelela iMatriki.

²⁴ Fourways is a suburb of Johannesburg, a city in Gauteng, a province of South Africa.

²⁵ Kwamashu is a suburb of Durban, a city in Kwazulu Natal, a province of South Africa.

52 *(Not me, I've never traveled anywhere. I usually spend all my school holidays at my*
 53 *grandmother's home at the village in Gqogqodala²⁶. My sister is studying at the University*
 54 *of Cape Town. I also wish to study in Cape Town²⁷ after I've passed Matric.)*

55 UThina: Ndakhe ndaya eKapa. Ndandiqala ukuhamba ngenqwelomoya.
 56 Ndandineminyaka esixhenxe. Saya eWaterfront, sabona iTable Mountain.
 57 Ndandisencinci, kodwa ndisayazi kakuhle. Sasihlala ehotele enkulu kunye notata
 58 nomama nomntakwethu.

59 *(I once went to Cape Town. It was the first time I traveled by airplane. I was only seven*
 60 *years old. We went to the Waterfront and we saw Table Mountain²⁸. I was still little, but*
 61 *I still remember it well. We stayed in a big hotel with my father and mother and my*
 62 *brother.)*

63 UNtando: Nantso intsimbi ikhala. Khawulezani, tshomi, singafiki leyithi emigceni!

64 *(There's the bell, it rang already. Hurry friends, we shouldn't be late at the lines!)*

65 UKhanyisile: Yekabani laa jezi ishiyekileyo?

66 *(Whose jersey is that left behind?)*

67 UThina: Hayi, andiyazi, kuba asiyoyam.

68 *(No, I don't know; it's not mine.)*

69 UNtando: Yeyam yona. Enkosi, tshomi yam, undincedile! Umama uza kundibetha xa
 70 ndiphinde ndayilahla ijezi yam.

71 *(It's mine, that one. Thanks, my friend, you saved me! My mother will give me a hiding*
 72 *if I lose my jersey again.)*

²⁶ Gqogqodala is a rural settlement near Queenstown, in the Eastern Cape, South Africa.

²⁷ Cape Town is a city in the Western Cape, a province of South Africa.

²⁸ The Waterfront is a commercial development in the harbour area of Cape Town and Table Mountain is the mountain in the city, which is also a popular tourist sight.